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EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW



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Deelighted !!

Because -biscuit day
will be a red letter
day in this house,
and next Friday the
bread will be good;
and when the pies
are baked the pastry
will be perfect;
and if they want
rolls, the rolls will
be gorgeous; and
our grocer brings
GOLD MEDAL FLOUR-
and that's reason enough
to be "Deelighted."



WASHBURN-CROSBY'S
GOLD MEDAL FLOUR

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

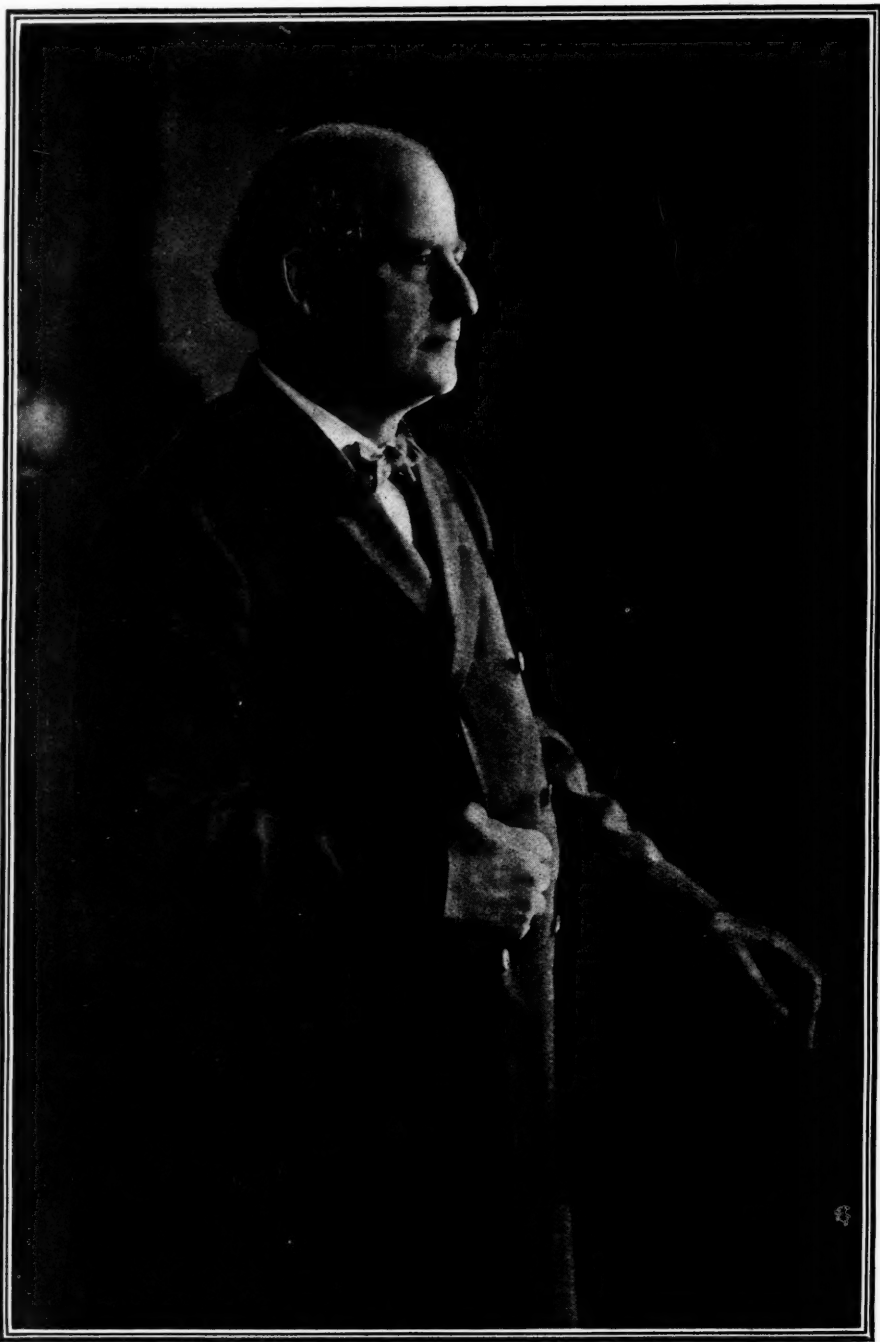
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From his latest Photograph taken in London.

HON. WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. XXXIV.

NEW YORK, SEPTEMBER, 1906.

No. 3.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Mr. Bryan's
Remarkable
Position*

The most notable political event of the season is the home-coming of the Hon. William Jennings Bryan. To some people, this may seem the result of careful and astute management. To others, it will seem to be due to inevitable tendencies. The remarkable fact is that all elements and factions of the Democratic party are now in full agreement that Mr. Bryan is to be nominated for the Presidency by acclamation in 1908. A personal triumph of this kind is very rare in American politics. No public man in our history has been as truly popular as President Roosevelt. Yet his nomination at Chicago in 1904 had been so bitterly opposed by the party leaders and professional politicians who were adepts in the art of securing delegates and controlling conventions, that for a long time there was very serious doubt whether the people or the bosses would control the situation. In 1896 and again in 1900, a great number of the most conspicuous and influential leaders of the Democratic party not only opposed Mr. Bryan's nomination, but openly refused to support him, and either committed themselves to an independent ticket or else went the whole length and supported McKinley. Yet at this time, two years in advance of the necessity for making up their minds; most of these anti-Bryan leaders have fallen into line and are loudly proclaiming their allegiance to the "Great Commoner."

*Why He Is the
Logical
Candidate.*

If one were disposed to make sensation, or scandal, or mystery out of any phase of this universal rallying to the Bryan standard, it would be easy enough to multiply words. But common sense supplies a very natural and simple explanation of it all. Our political history of the last ten years has made Mr. Bryan the logical and necessary candidate of the Democrats for 1908. It is nothing to his political discredit that he

was beaten twice by Mr. McKinley. In both elections the odds were greatly against Mr. Bryan, and he made a marvelous campaign. One has only to compare the pluck and power of those campaigns against McKinley with the ineffectiveness of the campaign against Roosevelt two years ago to see how a leader may be defeated and yet keep high personal prestige. The issue of 1896 was an accidental one. The West and South were heavily in debt, and the alarming decline in the price of silver was paralyzing Colorado and the mountain States. The doctrine that the single gold standard had wrought great mischief was highly plausible, under all the circumstances. If Mr. Roosevelt had lived in Nebraska in that period,—or, better still, if he had continued in the ranching business on the Little Missouri,—there is a very fair chance that he would have stood shoulder to shoulder with Mr. Bryan in the fight for free silver. Mr. McKinley himself was so uncertain on the subject that very few people were sure of his position until after he had been nominated by the Republicans. It is not to be forgotten that he was opposed in his own national convention, to the very last, on the ground that he was a silver man.

*Bryan in
1896.*

The underlying fact is that the business world selects its own standards of value and its own mediums of exchange. The political world in such matters has to accommodate itself to financial and economic facts. And there was swiftly coming about a transition in the conditions of supply of the precious metals which led the business world to adhere to the single gold standard. The value to-day of the metal in a standard silver dollar is about 50 cents. To have opened the American mints to the free and unlimited coinage of silver dollars at any time since the campaign of 1896, would have thrown gold out of circulation and would

have given us a single silver standard. There may have been a time when the gold standard in this country worked to the detriment of the producing and debtor classes. But it never caused one tithe of the disaster and injustice that would have been wrought if Mr. Bryan could have had his way and all debts had been made payable in silver. It happened that Mr. Bryan was a fresh, strong figure, with a talent for advocacy. He had served in Congress from 1891 to 1895, where his specialty had been the tariff and where he had made a fine reputation as a debater. Not being reelected to Congress, he became connected with a Democratic newspaper in Omaha, and was employed as a speaker in the silver miners' propaganda through the West and South. His strength did not lie in his knowledge of the money question, but in his great ability as a speaker in presenting and expounding the cause which he had taken up. It was thus that he electrified the Democratic convention at Chicago in 1896 with the brilliant sort of speech he had been making for some time on the silver question to audiences in various States. And a radical convention, full of men of enthusiasm and conviction, broke away from the advice of the professional party leaders and the Eastern conservatives and named Bryan as its Presidential candidate on a free-silver platform.

As Candidate
in 1900

It was an honest convention and a splendid one, even though its view of the money question proved to be incorrect. Mr. Bryan fitly represented that convention, and his renomination in 1900 showed that he was a man with great gifts of leadership, irrespective of the accidental issue



THE RADICAL AND CONSERVATIVE HITCHED.

WILLIAM J. BRYAN: "The world said I'd never do it, but I have them hitched together now." From the *Spokesman's Review* (Spokane).



WE ALL KNOW HOW MR. BRYAN FEELS.
MR. BRYAN: "Now, isn't that too bad!"
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

which had obscured all other questions in 1896. In 1900 he was again contending against heavy odds. We had fought the war for the emancipation of Cuba, and there seemed many good reasons why Mr. McKinley should be permitted to work out various policies and problems which had come to the front in consequence of that war. Mr. Bryan had shown his approval in 1898 of the policy of the McKinley administration by raising a regiment in Nebraska and becoming its colonel. He opposed our policy of retaining control of the Philippines and made "Imperialism," so-called, the paramount issue of the campaign. It was evident that the American people were not particularly enthusiastic about holding the Philippine Islands, but felt that we had certain responsibilities there which we must face, and that upon the whole the best thing that could happen to the inhabitants of that archipelago was to remain for an indefinite period under the American flag. Meanwhile Mr. Bryan made opposition to the trusts his second great practical issue, and adhered firmly to his silver views without giving them much prominence in his speeches.

"Trusts
and the
Parties.

The question of the regulation of great corporations has had a much more conspicuous place in our politics since Mr. Bryan's last campaign than it had before. It is true that the earlier Democratic platforms were more emphatic in



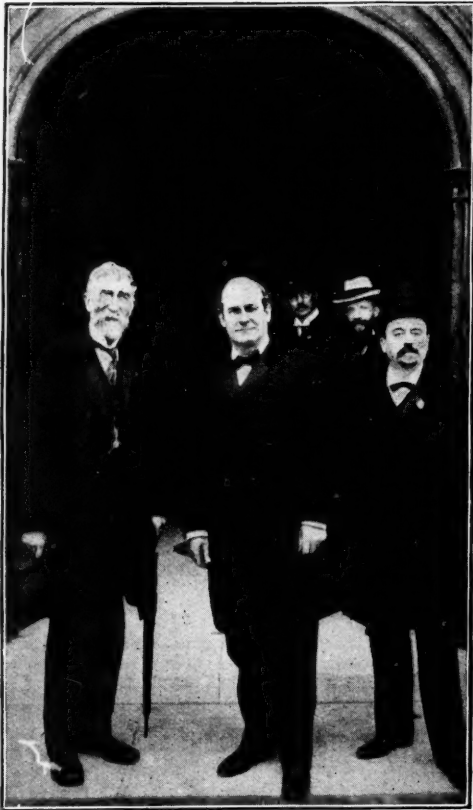
From the *Herald* (New York).

their statements of hostility to corporation evils than were the Republican platforms. But every one knows that the nomination of Mr. Roosevelt at Chicago in 1904 was a practical mandate by the Republicans to the man whose honesty and courage they believed in, to go ahead with the regulation of the great railroads of the country and to make the trusts obey the laws. The nomination of Judge Parker by the Democrats, on the other hand, was due to the activity of the so-called conservative Democrats of the East, and thus party positions were to some extent reversed for all practical purposes, the Republicans being the more radical. Mr. Roosevelt, to use a current phrase, has "made good" most wonderfully, and has induced the Republican Congress in the main to follow his leadership. The country is solidly and deliberately with him, and the Democrats are naturally claiming that he has been doing the things that they would have done if they had been in power. The only possible way by which they can convince the country that they mean what they say is to repudiate the sort of counsel that they took in 1904, when they accepted a conservative candidate from

New York and gave their opponents much of of their own natural fighting ground.

*Roosevelt,
Bryan
and Hearst.*

If Mr. Roosevelt had not repeatedly made it clear that he would not accept another nomination, the Democrats might not now be so unanimous. But with Roosevelt out of the way, they hold that the country's natural leader in the continuing work of curbing the corporations and purifying our economic life must be Mr. Bryan. They have come to this conclusion the more readily and openly because they are greatly afraid of Mr. Hearst, and do not like to take the chance of waiting another year and allowing the Hearst movement a free opportunity to develop. Mr. Bryan is above all else a personality. He has faced audiences again and again all over the country. There is a very widespread feeling that Bryan, like Roosevelt, is his own platform,—that is to say, that the man in his essential character and qualities is greater than the opinions he may happen to hold at a given moment upon public questions. Next only to Roosevelt, he is the best-advertised and most widely known of living Americans.



MR. W. J. BRYAN AT THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.
(He is accompanied by M. Deloncle and the Comte Goblet d'Alviella.)

*Bryan as a
Doctrinaire*

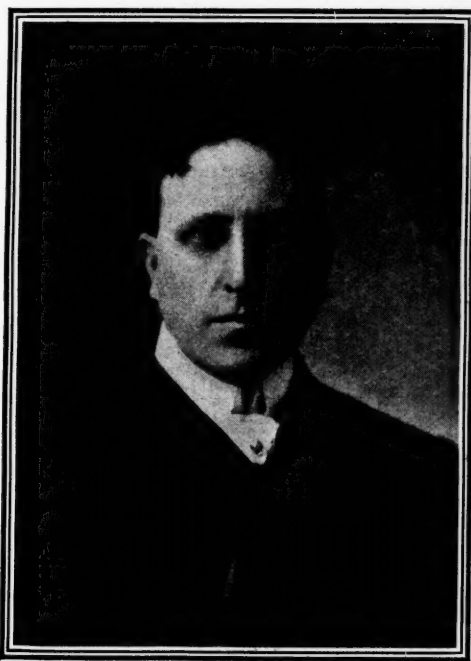
Mr. Bryan is now forty-six years old, and it is fair to suppose that he has a broader and more tolerant mind than ten years ago. It was the testimony of independent observers that he was by far the strongest and most impressive figure in the St. Louis convention two years ago, where he was able to compel the Parker men to accept his revision of the platform. The one great fault of his earlier public career was his lack of open-mindedness. He seemed to have made up his mind once and for all upon all possible questions, and he seemed unable, even for a moment, to consider whether or not, through inexperience and lack of mature study, he might not at some point or other have been mistaken. Where a strong and able man has a long lifetime to expend in battling for his convictions, it is always to be regretted if he is so short-sighted as to form all those convictions that are to serve for his entire career

as if he were snatching a bit of food in a railroad station. Yet all great men cannot have all great qualities in equal admixture. Some men can think with philosophical sagacity, yet wholly lack the zeal for propaganda. Mr. Bryan has always had a very dangerous love for settling all things by hastily reducing them to the form of a dictum of eternal and immutable application. The danger of this habit of mind is that the coined phrase that expresses a policy may become a sort of religion to the man who takes it up. Thus, Mr. Bryan, after his defeat in 1896, was so sure that his "16 to 1" money doctrine was at the root of all things, past, present, and future, that he was ready to spend his life as the martyr of a lost cause. Later on, he showed the same tendency in his theoretical attitude toward what he called "imperialism," and not less so in his attitude, which was purely argumentative, toward "trusts." It was not his method to study things in the concrete and reach conclusions about imperialism or trusts through an intimate acquaintance with facts and conditions, but it was his method, on the contrary, to proceed along abstract lines, building up syllogisms like the logicians and sophists of old. But although this doctrinaire tendency has always been so strong in Mr. Bryan, the corrective has to a great extent been supplied by his wholesome contact with practical American life; and with a man of his character and traits, the abstract point of view is much more likely to show itself in speeches than in actions. In an executive office like the Presidency, Bryan would probably be almost as free from a reckless desire to test untried theories and to make startling innovations as Cleveland, McKinley, or Roosevelt. He talks always as in a vacuum, like a pure theorist; but he would probably act in a given case like a prudent and thrifty citizen, with hard sense. As a candidate, he has the great advantage in the present state of public opinion of being regarded as wholly free from corporation influences, and he is as strong with the "plain people" as ever before. On the other hand, business men consider the money question settled beyond doubt, and do not expect a Bryan administration to upset the prosperity of the country. They know Mr. Bryan and can make their calculations accordingly.

*As Regards
Mr. Hearst.*

But they do not know anything at all about what Mr. Hearst might do if he were President. They know that he made his appearance as a national candidate in 1904 merely as preliminary to

more serious plans for 1908. They know that he just missed being elected mayor of New York City last fall, and that he would have been chosen by a large majority if conservative Republicans had not voted for McClellan for the express purpose of keeping Hearst out. They have watched the progress of the Hearst boom for the governorship of New York, and have seen its steady growth until the Democratic nomination last month seemed to be well within his grasp. It was felt among Democratic politicians that if Hearst were elected governor of New York in November next, he would be on the high road to victory in the national Democratic convention of 1908. But to Democratic politicians, as well as to the country at large, the name of William R. Hearst stands for a movement, rather than for a personality. Every one knows where Mr. Bryan is, what he is like, and what he is doing. But the average intelligent newspaper reader never knows whether Mr. Hearst is in New York, Chicago, San Francisco, London, or Paris. He has never by any chance seen Mr. Hearst, and he does not know any one who has ever met that gentleman. He is told that the Hearst movement is run by a sort of journalistic syndicate, which puts forth declarations that Mr. Hearst has not written and



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HON. WILLIAM RANDOLPH HEARST.

has perhaps never seen or read. There is much vague disparagement of Mr. Hearst from every standpoint; and this will probably continue until Mr. Hearst comes out in the open and allows everybody to see him and hear him. Many leaders, not merely of the conservative wing alone, but also of the radical wing of the Democratic party, are thus afraid of the Hearst movement, because they do not know the man and are not willing to take the risk of following his leadership. The one plain escape before them lay in coming out promptly and strongly for Bryan, and they have done it with such unanimity that if the convention were to be held this month, it is not likely that a single delegate would raise a dissenting voice. Mr. Hearst himself has joined heartily in the Bryan chorus.



MR. WILLIAM J. BRYAN (ON THE LEFT) WITH COUNT APPONYI AND BARON D'ESTOURNELLES DE CONSTANT.

The Great Reception. The arrangements for Mr. Bryan's reception at New York on August 30 were on a national scale. Democratic State organizations throughout the country had passed resolutions welcoming Mr. Bryan home and had declared themselves for his nomination in 1908. Leading members of the party to the number of about one thousand were invited to platform seats in the Madison Square Garden, where Mr. Bryan

was to make his great speech, and the railroads had all offered special excursion rates for the tens of thousands of the faithful, who were coming by whole trainloads to pay homage to their accepted leader. Incidentally, it was expected that this great show of Democratic unity would put a good deal of life into the Congressional and State campaigns of the present season. Mr. Bryan is booked for speeches at Chicago, St. Louis, and other cities, besides those that he is to give in his own State. He is to lend inspiration to this year's campaign, and then, with his nomination all safe and unquestioned, he will just have to wait and make plans for a campaign that cannot be fought until 1908.

To go on his Travels Again.

This is a very trying position in which to place a live, vigorous American politician. In England the party leader out of power sits on the front opposition bench of the House of Commons and fights merrily as he goes along, waiting for the inevitable swing of the pendulum that will put his party into power again. But there is nothing for Mr. Bryan to do except to retire to his farm near Lincoln, Neb., or else to resume his travels. When he first went abroad, sailing from San Francisco on the 27th of last September, it was his intention to include Australia and New Zealand in his itinerary. But his plans were changed, and it is understood that after the election this fall he will visit the antipodes and make a study of the progressive English-speaking communities, whose economic and political life has such a fascination for radical statesmen everywhere. From all points of view, this is a very wise plan. If Mr. Bryan is to be President of the United States, the more experience and knowledge he acquires, the better able he will be to discharge the duties of his high office.

A Valuable Year Abroad.

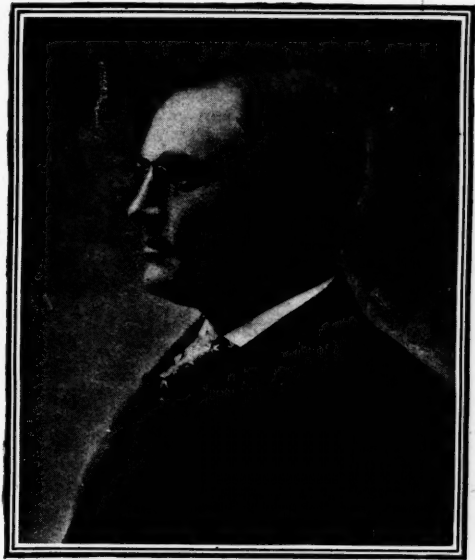
No man traveling as he has done during the past year could make a profound study of politics or conditions anywhere. It is only obscure men who make profound studies. Men whose journeyings are publicly noted, who are lionized and fêted everywhere, and who are called upon to make speeches, are forever and forever past the period of study and investigation. This does not alter the fact that it is an exceedingly good thing for a statesman to have a period of vacation travel, to meet public men of other countries, and to get the larger, world view of affairs. Mr. Bryan, furthermore, did not travel with any deliberate idea of being lion-

ized and fêted, and the honors that were heaped upon him everywhere were not of his seeking. He had committed himself before starting to the task of writing articles for newspapers and periodicals about the things that impressed him in different countries. And he had promised the readers of his own weekly paper, *The Commoner*, to give them a letter in every issue. These letters show that Mr. Bryan took pains to acquire information, and make it evident that the year's absence was one of great value to him in his own education. His letters from Japan, Korea, and China were clear and useful, and his letters from the Philippines were frank and able. If he should become President, his having visited the Philippine Islands would prove of great advantage to him in dealing with the questions of administration he would have to face. After leaving the Philippines, Mr. Bryan visited Java and the Malay Peninsula, and wrote very entertainingly regarding Dutch colonial administration and tropical conditions in general. His four or five letters from India were systematic and conscientious. From India Mr. Bryan went to Egypt and Syria, visiting Palestine and the Lebanon district, and then he proceeded by way of Turkey upon a somewhat hurried tour of Europe. In Russia he saw the Duma in session, and our readers will remember that last month we published a picture of him taken with a large group of Russian parliamentarians. He proceeded to London to make a Fourth of July address, and was received there with every mark of honor that could be bestowed upon an unofficial traveler. He returned to the Continent, visiting France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and other countries. While in London he attended the Interparliamentary Conference, where he took advanced ground in favor of the arbitration of disputes between nations, and advocated a plan for mediation and delay, even in cases where disputes might be regarded as involving the national honor.

Parties and the House.

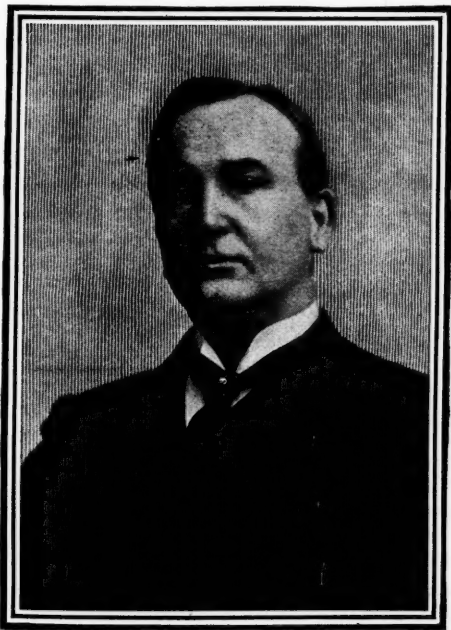
It remains to be seen to what extent Mr. Bryan's return and the new cheerfulness of the Democratic party can impress voters in electing members of the Sixtieth Congress on the 6th day of November. The Fifty-ninth Congress thus far, under President Roosevelt's inspiration, has made a very strong record; and Republican Congressmen who have stood loyally by the President's programmes will hardly be apologetic in facing their constituents. The present Congress has 250 Republican members.

and 136 Democratic members. It is now fourteen years since the Democrats fought a winning campaign for the House of Representatives, the last six Houses having had good Republican majorities. The Democrats, on the other hand, during the twenty years previous to this Republican period, lost only two Congressional elections. In other words, the Democrats held the House for sixteen years and the Republicans for four. The Republicans concede in advance this year a certain amount of Democratic gain, but expect to keep a working majority. Mr. James S. Sherman, of New York, is chairman of the Republican Congressional Campaign Committee, and Mr. James M. Griggs, of Georgia, is chairman of the Democratic Congressional Committee. A good deal of newspaper comment has been occasioned by the Republican appeal for one-dollar campaign contributions from members of the party. Chairman Griggs, on behalf of the Democrats, followed Chairman Sherman with a similar appeal. It is not likely that much money will come in this way to the central fund for general party purposes. And there is no reason this year why any central fund should exist at all, except for the purpose of printing a campaign handbook and a few brief documents. Each Congressional district



HON. JAMES S. SHERMAN OF NEW YORK.
(Chairman of the Congressional Republican Campaign Committee.)

is abundantly competent to select its own representative and to meet the slight legitimate expenses of the local campaign. Neither directly or indirectly should the corporations continue to put money into politics, and the newspapers suffice to disseminate information. It is very encouraging to note the reaction against large campaign funds, and it should be a matter of pride with good citizens to do their political duty without pecuniary reward.



HON. JAMES M. GRIGGS OF GEORGIA.
(Chairman of the Congressional Democratic Campaign Committee.)

*The Speaker
and the Issues.*

The party lines have not been sharply drawn in the work of the present Congress, and it will be impossible to give a very intelligent and definite party character to the Congressional elections this fall. Republicans generally admit that the tariff must be revised within the next four or five years, but they differ as to whether the Sixtieth or the Sixty-first Congress should tackle the job. That issue cannot be made to figure very importantly in this year's campaign. Mr. Gompers and the labor organizations that he represents have gone openly into politics this year, with the object of defeating prominent Congressmen who have opposed certain bills regarded as in the interest of labor unions. The most prominent of these measures is one that would restrict the power of the federal courts to interfere with strikes by issuing injunctions. Speaker Cannon is frankly op-



THE REPUBLICAN ELEPHANT PASSES THE HAT.

(The Corporation representatives grin, while the rank and file "chip in" to the dollar fund.)
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica.)

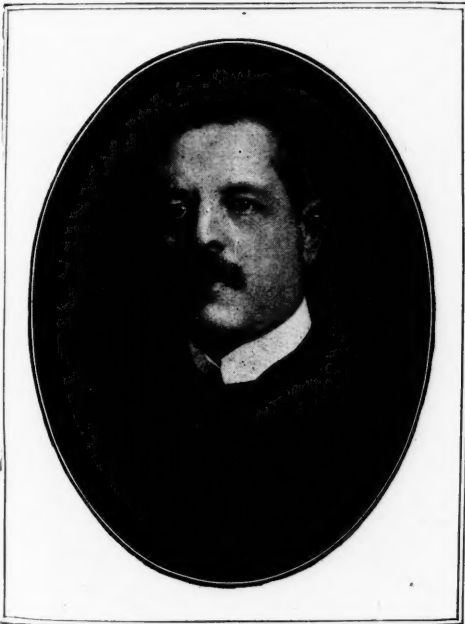
posed to that bill and it is forming an issue in his Illinois district. His speech at Danville, Illinois, before his district convention on August 16 was one of the ablest efforts of his public career. His constituents insisted upon announcing him as a Presidential candidate. He is a man of unquestioned honesty and courage, and he deserves his great personal popularity. He was seventy years old in May, and he seems to be just now attaining the maturity of his intellectual powers and political influence. He will be in Maine this month, where he will give his aid particularly in Congressman Littlefield's district, that able and vigorous member of the House having been marked for defeat by the labor leaders.

The Republican Keynote. Senator Beveridge's speech at Portland, Me., on August 22, states the Republican case in this Congressional campaign with thoroughness and sound logic. He says that the issue is moral, and that the voters who believe in Theodore Roosevelt and what he is trying to do will elect Congressmen and Senators to support him during the remainder of his administration. He announces the "renaissance of the decalogue in American commerce." He finds the Ameri-

can people, under the leadership of Theodore Roosevelt, engaged in straightening out the methods of American business. He proceeds to show how far the country has actually traveled along that line since Mr. Roosevelt came into office, and he makes a remarkable summing-up of the achievements of the Department of Justice in bringing trusts into obedience to the law, and of other branches of the administration in putting vitality into their work for justice and the supremacy of law. He proceeds to show that all this effort has not hurt business, but has emancipated it and helped it, and he presents a remarkable statistical conspectus of economic progress during the past five years. He expounds the railway rate bill, and shows the significance of the meat inspection law, which he himself drafted and carried through the Senate. He makes a plea for permitting Roosevelt to push the Panama Canal work without obstruction, and commends the President's foreign policies and international influence. Senator Beveridge has certainly struck the keynote of the Republican campaign. Confidence in the President, and a willingness to promote the success of his policies in the remaining years of his administration, is the thing at issue.

*Politics in
New England*

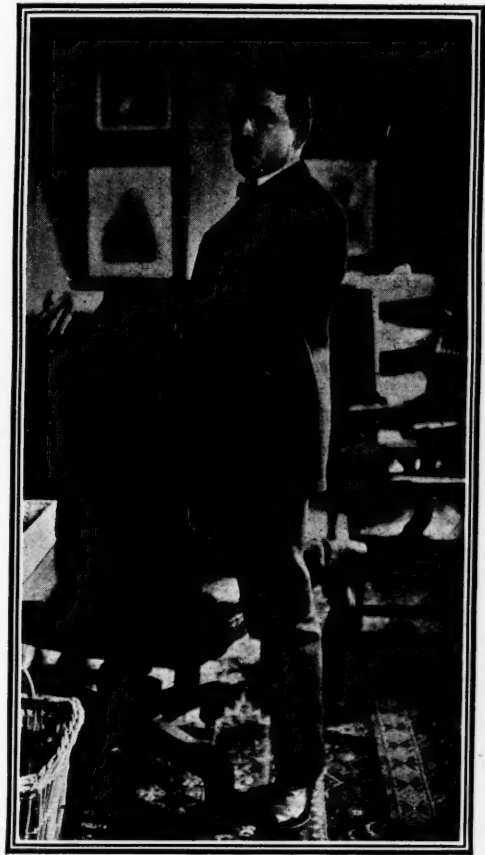
The State election in Maine occurs on September 10, this being one of the few States that separates State from national elections. The present governor, William T. Cobb, is a candidate for reelection, and his opponent is Cyrus W. Davis, of Waterville. The Democrats are taking the ground that there is no honesty in the enforcement of the prohibition laws, and they demand the re-submission of that question to the people. Some time this re-submission movement will prevail in Maine, but probably not this year. Governor Cobb is at least honest and has identified himself with the policy of rigid enforcement of the laws against the sale of liquor. But it is impossible to enforce such laws without friction, and there will always be scandalous evasions. Vermont has an early State election, the date being September 4. The campaign is an unusually vigorous one, with Mr. Fletcher D. Proctor, a son of Senator Proctor, as the Republican candidate for governor. Opposed to him is Mr. Percival W. Clement, of Rutland, who is supported by Democrats and Independents. Mr.



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GOVERNOR HIGGINS OF NEW YORK.

Clement ran as an independent Republican four years ago and polled a considerable vote. This year he is still supported by his Republican wing, while indorsed by the Democrats.

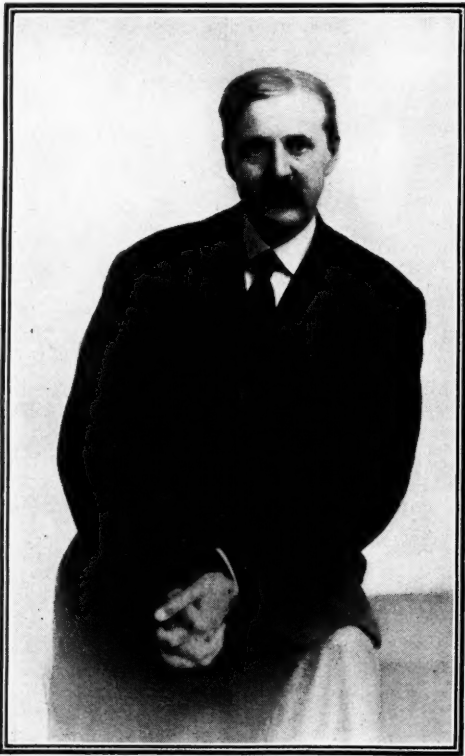


WILLIAM TRAVERS JEROME, WHO IS LIKELY TO RUN FOR THE GOVERNORSHIP OF NEW YORK.

The Republican convention in New Hampshire will be held on the 18th of the present month, and the country will watch with interest Mr. Winston Churchill's campaign to secure the nomination for governor on an anti-railroad platform. Mr. Churchill has a strong case, and he is stating it with frankness and courage in a year when the drift of public opinion is very strongly with him. Nevertheless, the evils against which he contends are so strongly entrenched in New Hampshire that the fight is a real one. The Massachusetts conventions will be held very late in the season. Connecticut and Rhode Island politics are usually in a turmoil, and this year offers no exception.

*In New York
State*

The political situation in New York is a peculiar one, and it will be watched by the country with much interest during the period to elapse be-

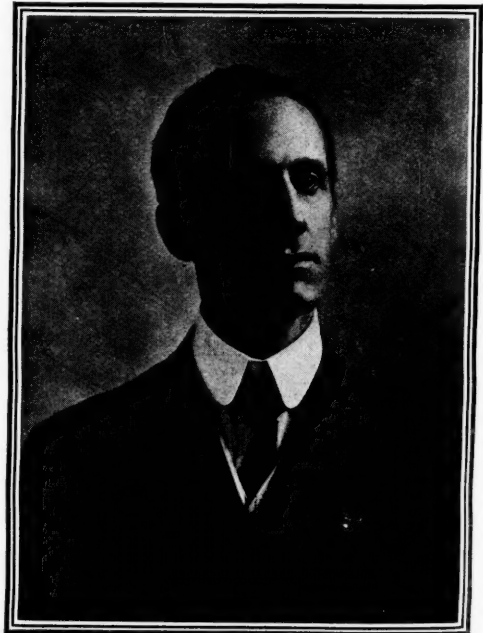


GOVERNOR CUMMINS OF IOWA.
(Nominated for a third term.)

fore the two great parties hold their State conventions on the same day,—September 25. The Hearst movement was first organized on an independent basis. During August it became increasingly probable that Mr. Hearst would receive the regular Democratic nomination for governor. The situation became further complicated, however, by the prospect that Mr. William Travers Jerome would be a candidate and would run independently if not regularly nominated. What Mr. Jerome can do as an independent was shown last fall, when he was elected district attorney in New York City after both great parties had foolishly declined to renominate him. The Republicans are watching their opponents, and meanwhile quarreling bitterly among themselves over the control of the party machinery. The friends of Governor Higgins had hoped to secure his renomination, but all factions were looking to Mr. Charles E. Hughes as a man who might lead them to victory in case the Democrats should nominate a Hearst or a Jerome. Mr. Hughes is not a politician, and

would prefer not to be named. After the bitterness of recent strife between Senator Platt and ex-Governor Odell it has been a spectacle more curious than edifying to see them united again, in the endeavor to control the State and county committees, and retain the semblance of power and authority.

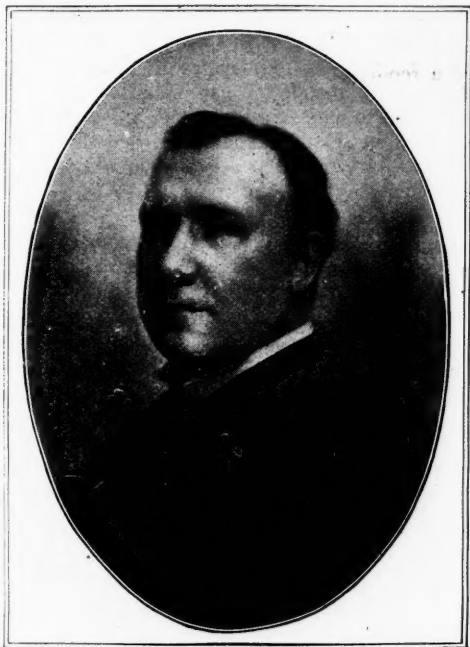
The Situation in Iowa. The long preliminary contest in Iowa for the headship of the Republican ticket was won by Governor Cummins in the convention of August 1. He received 933 votes, as against 603 for Mr. Perkins, his principal opponent. The fight ended in comparative harmony, Governor Cummins having made the platform agreeable all around, and having political sagacity enough to be magnanimous. He has been a remarkably able administrator of the affairs of the State, and his nomination for a third term is without precedent. We publish on page 291 a sketch of the governor by a well-known writer. Governor Cummins is a protectionist, but demands the early revision of the tariff and the application of the principles of reciprocity. The platform states these views, but not very aggressively. The Democrats have nominated a young lawyer from Centerville, Hon. Claude R. Porter, as their candidate for governor.



HON. CLAUDE R. PORTER OF IOWA.
(Democratic nominee for Governor.)

*The Fight
in Georgia.*

In the South, as in the North, the political season is notable for the manner in which personalities rather than doctrines or policies have come to the front. In Iowa the contest was far more one of personal leadership than one of political doctrine. In New York the voters demand men in whom they can have confidence, and the party machines are recognizing the necessity of yielding to that demand. And so throughout the country there is everywhere visible this search for vigorous, trustworthy, and competent leadership. Intense as was the preliminary combat among Republican leaders in Iowa, it was all a very tame affair in comparison with the struggle in Georgia for the



HON. HOKE SMITH OF GEORGIA.

Democratic nomination for the governorship. The two chief candidates were the Hon. Clark Howell, editor of the *Atlanta Constitution* and a widely known leader in Georgia politics and affairs, and the Hon. Hoke Smith, also of Atlanta, formerly in Mr. Cleveland's cabinet, a prominent lawyer and formerly if not now proprietor of the *Atlanta Journal*. Their canvass of the State will not be forgotten for half a century. In the heat of the fray, their newspapers as well as their speeches were acrimonious beyond all admitted rules of the political game, and their hosts of friends in other



HON. CLARK HOWELL OF GEORGIA.

States will have regretted their loss of temper and of reserve. Another prominent candidate was Col. J. H. Estill, editor and owner of the *Savannah Morning News*. Judge Richard B. Russell was also in the field, and so was Col. James H. Smith, famous as a millionaire farmer in north Georgia. The primary elections were set for August 22, and the State convention will be held in the present month. Our pages were closed for the press too early to note the result of the primary elections. Hoke Smith's leading issue was a demand for a new voting test that would practically exclude negroes, as in several other Southern States. Clark Howell opposed such a change in the franchise laws. Tom Watson, the Populist, sided with Hoke Smith on this negro issue, but there seemed to be a question whether or not his Populist followers would get into the Democratic primaries. Howell was charged with being in close relationship with railroads and corporations, and Smith was charged with almost every crime in the penal code.

*American
Business
Conditions.*

The business conditions of the country were never more promising than at the present time. Our wheat crop is decidedly the largest on record, the Government's report estimating it at 772,-

000,000. The corn crop is also expected to exceed that of last year, which was the largest in our history. The general prosperity of the farmers will affect all other lines of production. The only danger is that continued good fortune may promote unwise speculation. The iron and steel industry is taxed to its utmost to meet the demand, and the United States Steel Corporation has been able to resume the payment of dividends on its common stock. This company is a notable example of numerous industrial amalgamations that have been strengthening themselves by using a large part of their earnings from year to year in the making of permanent improvements. Wall Street was greatly excited last month over the unexpected raising of the dividend of the Union Pacific Railroad from a 6 per cent. to a 10 per cent. annual rate, with the simultaneous announcement of the payment of dividends by the Southern Pacific at the rate of 5 per cent. The great railroads have been putting so much of their earnings into improvements that the general public has not realized how much money they are making. Meanwhile, the big men on the inside have been constantly increasing their already large holdings and absorbing the property of the many uninformed and discouraged outsiders.

*Sunday Laws
in Canada
and France*

Sunday has been made a day of obligatory rest by parliamentary enactment in Canada and France. In accordance with a measure passed by the late session of the Canadian parliament, with but very little opposition, Sunday will be a legalized day of rest throughout the Dominion, beginning March next. The government realized the difficulties growing out of religious and industrial differences and therefore, very wisely, based the legislation on humanitarian grounds—the need of Sunday as a day of rest. Works of “necessity and mercy” will be permitted, but all trading, “work for remuneration,” theatricals, sports, “amusements for gain,” the publication, sale, and distribution of newspapers, and all railroad operations are prohibited, with heavy penalties for violation of the law. No telephone, telegraph, or railroad employee, or any other industry calling for Sunday work, can be required to perform such work unless during the other six days he be allowed twenty-four consecutive hours without labor. In France, Socialism has accomplished what neither Roman Catholicism nor Puritanism could bring about. The new Sunday law, passed with but one dissenting vote, was a

government measure and its passage is significant in view of the clerical denunciations of the Republic as godless because it has declined to be ultramontane. The law makes compulsory cessation from Sunday labor, with certain definite exceptions. A special clause authorizes the ministers interested to suspend fifteen times a year a day of rest in establishments under state control or private establishments where work is going on in the interest of national defense. The bill also allows masters and employees in hotels, bakeries, restaurants, hospitals, drug stores, newspaper offices, and such places to so arrange their work that employees who work on Sunday shall rest on some other day of the week. The Belgian parliament has recently enacted similar legislation and, early in August, a joint committee of the British Lords and Commons issued a report on Sunday trading, in which a strong recommendation is made for further legislation to maintain Sunday as a day of rest, not only on religious and moral grounds, but “as necessary to the preservation of the health and the strength of the community.”

*Politics
and Education
in England.*

When the British parliament closed its sessions (on August 4), the education bill, introduced in April by Mr. Augustine Birrell, President of the Education Board, had passed the Commons by a majority of 192. The provisions of this bill have been already considered in these pages. Its main features, as modified by debate and amendment, are thus summarized in the cable dispatches:

From January 1, 1908, all schools maintained by the local educational authority must be “provided” schools. The local authority has power to purchase or lease the existing schools.

Not a penny of public money is to be used in denominational instruction.

Teachers will be appointed by the local authorities without any religious tests.

All schools receiving rates will give the same religious education.

Religious instruction may be given in these schools two mornings a week by arrangement with the local authority.

Attendance will not be compulsory during religious instruction, and religious instruction will not be given by the ordinary staff.

There will be a further grant of \$5,000,000 from the exchequer for the educational purposes of the bill.

A National Educational Council is provided for Wales.

The bill now goes to the House of Lords, where it will no doubt be radically amended, if not practically vetoed. Other important measures left unfinished at the close of Parliament were the Irish Laborers’ Cot-

tage Bill (in committee of the House of Lords) and the Colonial Marriages Bill (which passed its second reading in the House of Commons). The appointment of an educational council for Wales and the public announcement of Mr. Duncan Vernon Perie, Liberal member for North Aberdeen, that at the next session he would introduce a bill for the establishment of a separate parliament for Scotland would seem to indicate the trend against imperialism, and should give encouragement to Irish Home Rulers. Perhaps the most important international event in London during late July was the congress of the Interparliamentary Union, at which Mr. William Jennings Bryan made a very favorable impression by his speech in support of international arbitration. The resolution of the committee on arbitration, as amended by Mr. Bryan, will be inserted in the proposed model treaty on arbitration to the next Hague conference. The resolution is as follows:

If a disagreement should arise between the contracting parties which is not one to be submitted to arbitration, they shall not resort to any act of hostility before separately or jointly inviting, as the cause may necessitate, the formation of an international commission of inquiry or mediation on the part of one or more friendly Powers. This requisition will take place, if necessary, according to article 8 of the Hague convention for the peaceful settlement of international conflicts.

*A Constitution
for the
Transvaal.*

In the last days of the British parliament, the Secretary of the Colonial Office, Mr. Winston Churchill, outlined (on August 1) in the House of Commons the plans of the Liberal government for a constitution for the Transvaal, in accordance with the recommendations of the special committee appointed for that purpose. Manhood suffrage is established, although the rule of "one man one vote" does not apply to the negro population. The ballot is secret, and every adult male of twenty-one years of age who has been a resident for six months, except members of the British garrison, is entitled to vote. The assembly will consist of 69 salaried members elected for five years each. The upper house will consist, for the present, of 15 members, appointed by the crown; but it is announced that in the near future it is the intention of the ministry to abolish this and have only a unicameral legislature. The general lines of the old Boer magisterial districts are followed, and, on the basis of the census figures of 1904 the Rand will have 32 members, Pretoria 6, Krugersdorp 1, and the rest of the country 30. The

constitution will prohibit Chinese contract labor, and no more coolies will be imported into the country after November 15. Either the English or the Dutch language can be used for public business, and naturalization is made easy, but the Boers' request for woman's suffrage is denied. A similar constitution is promised soon to the Orange Free State. Considering that neither British nor Boers can secure a majority of more than two or three in the new house, and that, although neither side received just what it asked for, substantial concessions were made to both, it may be assumed that the result is really a fair and equitable compromise. The proposals of the government were attacked sharply in the parliament by ex-Premier Balfour and others, but the ministry was supported by a test vote of 316 to 83.

*Germany
and the
Kaiser.*

The world long ago recognized the fact that, whether it praised or blamed, it could not possibly ignore the German Kaiser. During the past month his versatile genius and restless energy have been manifested in three or four different directions. Noteworthy among these was his reception of King Edward of England, who crossed the Channel in his royal yacht and met the Kaiser at Friedrichshof on the morning of August 15. The meeting between the two monarchs was most cordial, and although it is officially denied that any political significance attached to the visit, it is noteworthy that Sir Charles Hardinge, permanent under-secretary of the British foreign office, accompanied King Edward, and Foreign Secretary Tschirschki-und Bögendorff, the Kaiser. It is probable that the monarchs discussed the near Eastern problem, and perhaps formulated some advice to their brother ruler, Czar Nicholas. A very dramatic exploit of the Kaiser's was his visit, on July 18, to Aix-la-Chapelle and the opening and examination of the sarcophagus of the great Charlemagne. His majesty also (early in August), made a rather remarkable speech on Socialism, in which he declared that the "red danger" was more to be feared than the "yellow peril." Then, to be sure, William II. has now the reflected glory of being a grandfather, his first grandchild, a boy, having been born to the Crown Prince Frederick William on July 4. German commercial prosperity continues and increases. Her exports mount at a faster rate than her imports. Her colonial activity spreads over a greater territory and involves greater enterprise. Unfortunately, all this

brings with it some of the corruption which seems to be inevitable to great commercial prosperity. There has been a scandal in the German colonial administration, and it is reported that the Prussian minister of agriculture, Dr. von Podbielski, has been dismissed for his connection with certain dishonest contracts made with the government for supplies to be used in the South African war against the Herreros. The Prussian "beamer" is justly famed for his integrity, but the opportunity to get rich quickly out of inferior races has apparently proved irresistible to him.

Up to the present, by the way, Germany's South African war has cost in the neighborhood of a hundred millions of dollars, and the end is not yet in sight.



ADMIRAL MILLER.
(New Chief of the German
Naval Staff.)

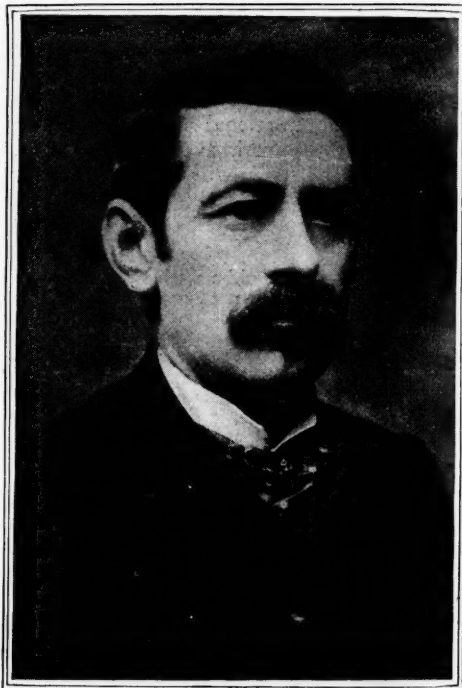
*The Pope's
Reply to
France.*

While we do not know as yet the text of the Pope's encyclical of August 1, replying to the request of the French bishops for instruction as to the course they ought to pursue regarding the separation law in France, the telegraphic dispatches and the comments in French newspapers indicate its general purport. According to the dispatches, based on a summary which appeared in the *Osservatore Romano*, the clerical organ of Rome, on August 14, the document declares that the decision in this matter was deferred because of its great importance, and (the encyclical is addressed to the Archbishop of Paris, Cardinal Richard) "through a charitable feeling for the great services your nation has rendered to the Church." His Holiness indorses the recommendations of the French priesthood, disapproving of the separation law, and declares that "concerning cultural associations such as the law prescribes, we decree absolutely that they cannot be formed without a violation of the sacred rights which are the life itself of the Church." His Holiness then proceeds to discuss other possible associations which may be legal and canonical, despairing, however, of finding any. He says:

As this hope fails us and the law remains as it

is, we declare it is not permissible to try these other kinds of association so long as they do not establish in the most legal and most positive way that the divine constitution of the Church, the immutable rights of the Roman Pontiff and the bishops, and their authority over the temporal affairs of the Church, particularly the sacred edifices, will be irrevocably protected by such associations. We cannot wish otherwise without betraying our sacred charge and producing the ruin of the Church in France.

The document further urges the bishops to adopt all means within the law to organize themselves, assuring them of Papal coöperation



M. A. BRIAND, MINISTER OF EDUCATION AND PUBLIC
WORSHIP.

(Who will enforce the French Church Separation Law.)

and support. The Pope, however, advises against seditious or violent action, and declares that firmness will give better results than violence. The encyclical says that it foresees "the recriminations which the enemies of the Church will make against the decree," even asserting that "we do not seek the salvation of the Church, but that the form of the republic in France is odious to us."

We indignantly denounce such insinuations as false. The makers of this law have not sought separation, but oppression. While affirming their desire for peace they have made atrocious war against religion. They hurl a brand of the most violent discord, thus arraying one citizen against

another, to the great detriment of public welfare. We have patiently supported injustice after injustice through love of the French nation, and are finally asked to overstep the last limit of our apostolic duties, and we declare our inability to overstep them. Let the responsibility rest with those whose hatred has gone to such extremes.

A Challenge to the Separation Law.

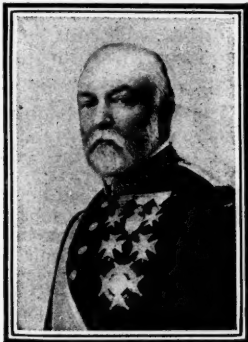
By the provisions of the French separation law, recently passed, it will be remembered, state support is to be withdrawn from all denominational schools and congregations in December of the present year. The effect of this law will be to overthrow the organization of the Roman Catholic Church in France. Up to the time of its enactment the bishops and priests had been state functionaries and the churches official bodies. In order to conduct public church services according to the law hereafter, "associations cultuelles" must be formed. These are virtually boards of trustees, responsible for the maintenance of worship, and, in general, for all the actions of the Church. Further, quoting literally from the separation act:

In default of any association to take over the property of an establishment of public worship, this property will be assigned by decree to the town establishments of charity and beneficence situated within the territorial limits of the ecclesiastical district in question.

The Pope's encyclical is a challenge to this law and virtually a call to arms addressed to French Catholics. In a second encyclical, containing more minute instructions to the French clergy, His Holiness repeats his refusal to consider the possibility of the Church submitting to the lay associations, but, in its wording, nevertheless, this encyclical leaves open a possibility for some future understanding which shall be both legal and canonical.

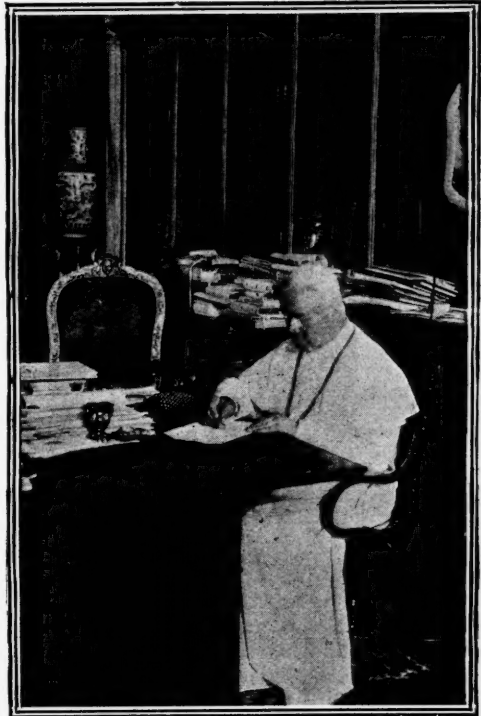
Significance of the Encyclical.

It is difficult for us in the United States, who have seen the prosperity and progress of American Catholicism, absolutely separate from any governmental support or interference, to un-



CAPTAIN-GENERAL JOSÉ LOPEZ DOMÍNGUEZ.

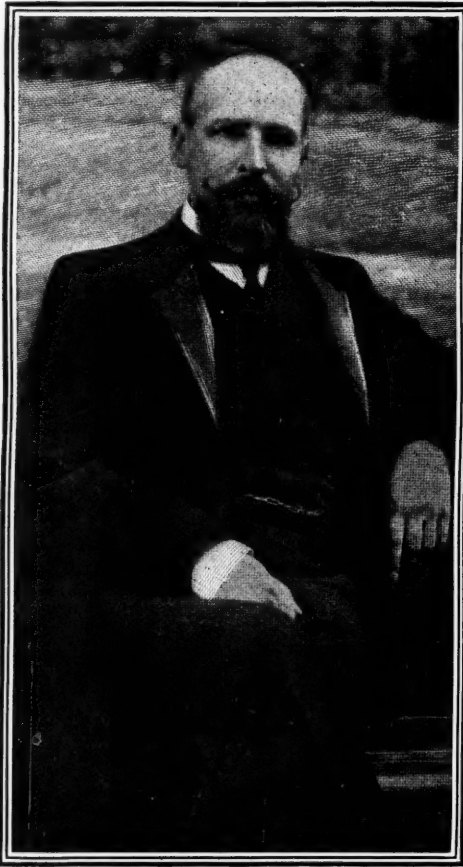
(The new Spanish Premier whose ministry is considering a church separation law.)



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HIS HOLINESS POPE PIUS X.
(At his work desk in the Vatican.)

derstand the opposition of the Vatican and the French hierarchy to the separation law in the Republic. It must be remembered, however, that while in this country the government in its attitude toward the Church is neutral, in France it is unfriendly. In this country, also, Catholic people are accustomed to support their church by direct voluntary contributions, while in France they are not. It has been hinted by a high Catholic dignitary, who declines to give his name, but who is quoted in the *Temps*, that while the provisions of the present French law in this might be accepted, if the Papal consent were fully gained in this case, other Catholic states might impose similar laws, and this would be the ruin of the political power of the Church. "It is better," observes this churchman, "to attempt a supreme effort of emancipation while the Church finds herself in possession of her temples and her property, and while the faithful are not yet accustomed to a régime more independent of the hierarchy." The date of the bishops' meeting to consider courses of action is uncertain, but it will probably be some time during the present month.



MINISTER STOLYPIN, WHO SUCCEEDS GOREMYKIN AS
RUSSIAN PREMIER.

The fear of other countries passing separation laws finds ground in the present situation in Spain, where, owing to the refusal of the clergy to permit burial in consecrated cemeteries to persons married by the civil form only, the Dominguez ministry has just introduced a bill making all religious associations subject to the same law as industrial corporations. M. Briand, French Minister of Public Instruction and Worship, declares that, while no modification of the separation law is possible, "there will be no necessity to repeat the experiment of the forcible taking of church inventories. It is not to be anticipated that any attempt will be made to close the churches by force." It is to be hoped and expected that some *modus vivendi* will be arrived at in France. If not, there are stormy times ahead for the Republic. It is

undoubtedly true that the great majority of the French electorate are behind the present government in its attitude toward the Church. Just how quickly this support would be converted into violent opposition if the forcible disbandment of churches was attempted the future only can show. It must not be forgotten that at heart the vast majority of Frenchmen are still devout Catholics.

"The Duma is dead! Long live the Duma!" In these words, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, the British Premier, in a speech (on July 23) before the Interparliamentary Conference in London, expressed the feelings and hopes of the civilized world, while at the same time he simply paraphrased the words of the imperial manifesto, which on July 23 dissolved Russia's first parliament. Following this imperial announcement a second governmental decree accepted the resignation of Premier Goremykin and announced the appointment of Minister Stolypin, formerly at the head of the Department of the Interior, to succeed him. In his ukase the Czar said:

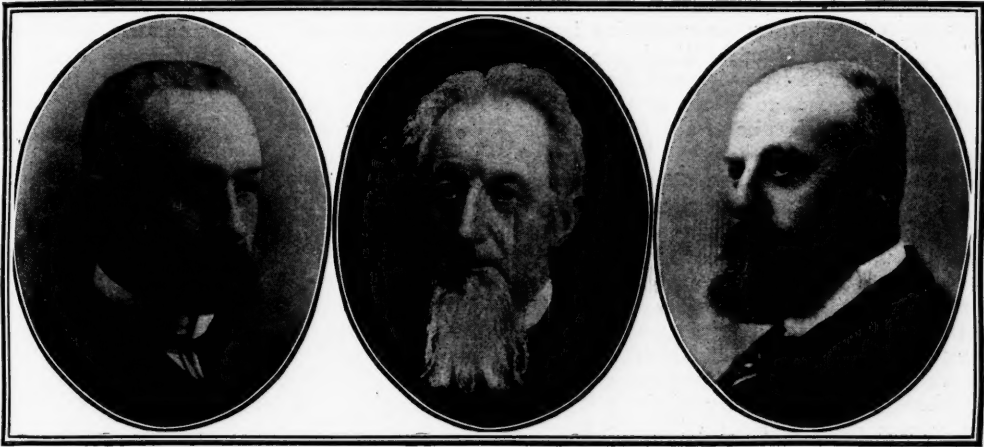
A cruel disappointment has befallen our expectations. The representatives of the nation, instead of applying themselves to the work of productive legislation, strayed into a sphere beyond their competence and have been making comments on the imperfections of the Fundamental Laws, which can only be modified by our imperial will. In short, the representatives of the nation have undertaken really illegal acts, such as an appeal to the nation by parliament. The peasants, disturbed by such anomalies, seeing no hope for the amelioration of their lot, resorted in a number of districts to open pillage, destruction of other people's property, and disobedience of law.

The Imperial Controller, General von Schwanenbach, made a similar statement for publication. He said:

You can tell the American people that this step was forced upon the Government as the only way of extricating the country from the horrible reign of blood and terrorism which prevails. The dissolution of the present Parliament does not mean a return to irresponsible absolutism. The past is dead forever. From his Majesty's own lips I can assure you that he still believes in the principle of popular representation and firmly intends to adhere to it; but he became convinced that the present Parliament was elected under abnormal conditions, and did not represent the true sentiment of the country, and that it was necessary to make another appeal to the nation.

*The Duma's
Defiance.*

From two to three hundred members of the outlawed parliament immediately journeyed to Viborg, Finland, and there, reorganizing under regular officers, they prepared, discussed, and



Prince Lvov.

Count Heyden.

Prince Dolgoroukov.

THREE CONSERVATIVE RUSSIAN LEADERS WHO WARN THE PEOPLE AGAINST REVOLUTION.

adopted an answer to the Czar's decree by which their chamber had been dissolved. Their manifesto, which was formally addressed "to the people, from the popular representatives of the citizens of all Russia," was signed by all the members of the Duma at Viborg, except Count Heyden, Dr. Stakhovich, and Prince Lvov. After enumerating the reforms which the Duma tried to bring about, the address declared:

The Government promises to convoke a new Duma seven months hence. Russia must remain without popular representation for seven whole months at a time when the people are standing on the brink of ruin, when industry and commerce are undermined, when the whole country is seething with unrest and when the Ministry has definitely shown its incapacity to do justice to the popular needs. For seven months the Government will act arbitrarily, will fight against the popular movement in order to obtain a pliable, subservient Duma. Should it succeed, however, in completely suppressing the popular movement, the Government will convoke no Duma at all.

Citizens, stand up for the trampled on rights of popular representation and for the imperial Duma. Russia must not remain a day without popular representation. You possess the means of acquiring it. The Government has, without the assent of the popular representatives, no right to collect taxes from the people nor to summon the people to military service. Therefore you are, now that the Government has dissolved the Duma, justified in giving neither money nor soldiers.

Should the Government, however, contract loans in order to procure funds, such loans will be invalid without the consent of the popular representatives. The Russian people will never acknowledge them, and will not be called upon to pay them. Accordingly, until the popular representatives are summoned, do not give a kopeck to the throne or a soldier to the army.

While the outside world cannot help admiring the self-restraint, the moderation, and the capacity

for self-government evident in this appeal of the Duma to the Russian people, it remains evident that, by the irresistible logic of events, it was necessary for Emperor Nicholas to dissolve parliament. He had to do this or repeal the "Fundamental Law,"—that is, he was compelled to surrender part of his power or disperse by force the representative assembly which insisted upon sharing that power. To his Majesty and all the partisans of the autocratic *régime*, the Duma was only a revolutionary club, which, Premier Stolypin declared, had wasted its time in talking and discussing and accomplishing nothing. Indeed, it is a fact that the freedom of speech permitted in the Duma, and the wide publicity given to its debates by the press, really made it a national organ of revolutionary propaganda. Millions of peasants throughout the country watched the struggle for "land and liberty" as reported in the press, and, by hundreds of telegrams, addresses, and resolutions of approval, cheered on parliament in its work and appealed for further advance. These documents and communications were also published abroad. Russia began to find herself. In the words of a Liberal writer in the *Nasha Zhizn* (Our Life), of St. Petersburg, "One-third of the people understand the situation now. Give us two months more and we will enlighten the other two-thirds." It may be safely predicted that the Russian people will never return to the autocracy.

"Strong-
Handed
Reform"

In an interview granted the Associated Press representative immediately after the dissolution of the Duma, Premier Stolypin declared that strong-handed reform was to be the keynote of his administration. In spite of all reports to the contrary, he declared, there had been no *coup d'état*. Nothing had been done which was not in accordance with the prescribed constitutional methods as laid down in the "Fundamental Law." There would be no return to the policy of reaction, although a number of "arrests, expulsions, and other measures of administrative order are indispensable under the present circumstances." Several members of the outlawed parliament were arrested and imprisoned, but the liberty of the great majority was not interfered with, the government evidently fearing to proceed with a high hand against "the best men of Russia," which the Emperor had summoned to assist him. In a subsequent governmental declaration it was announced that a new Duma would meet in March, next (the words of the imperial decree are: "We affirm our immutable intention of keeping the institution, and we appoint March 5, 1907, as the date of the convocation of the new Duma."), and that elections for membership in this body would be held in November and December. Certain new restric-

tions, however, will be put upon the powers of parliament, and it is specifically provided for in advance that "all legislation dealing with the power of the throne and the liberties of the people shall originate only from the Czar and his ministers."

Wholesale
Repression
Continued.

Meanwhile, the campaign of repression has actually been continued. The "strong hand" of Minister Stolypin's programme is very evident; the "reform" is not yet visible. Of the eighty-seven provinces of the empire, only five are now under a normal administration. Forty are under martial law, twenty-seven under "extraordinary protection," and fifteen have what the Russians call "reënforced protection." The minister himself is believed to be an honest man, somewhat imbued with Liberalism, and an administrator of some real ability. Whether or not he will be able to hold out against the clamor of the Reactionaries, who believe they have been victorious, for still other repressive measures remains to be seen. Several changes in the ministry were made at the same time as the appointment of Premier Stolypin. Prince Vassilchikov becomes Minister of Agriculture; Dr. Isvolski, brother of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, succeeds Prince Schakmatov as Procurator of the Holy Synod; and Mr. Filossofov becomes Minister of Commerce.



A MANIFESTATION OF RUSSIAN LOYALTY.

(The Czar and his uncle, the Grand Duke Nicholas, visiting the camp of the guard regiments at Krasnoye Selo, acclaimed by the soldiers.)

Those Conservative members of the Duma who refused to sign the Viborg manifesto, in conjunction with other Moderates, also drew up an address to the Russian people, pleading for moderation, and announcing the formation of a new party, to be known as the Party of Pacific Regeneration. They hold that the Emperor had a right to dissolve Parliament, and announce their belief in the government's sincerity in its promise of a new Duma. The verdict of their constituents on this attitude has been rather startling. Several of the Constitutional Democrats long known as prominent in zemstvo work and attached to this aforesaid Moderate group have just been candidates for reelection and have been defeated. The Radical groups of the outlawed parliament issued, on July 30, an address to the army and navy, which was indorsed by the central committees of all the proletariat organizations, calling upon the military to join the people in their warfare against the "criminal government." The

Is the Army
Disaffected?

substance of this address is contained in the following paragraph:

Will you shoot the people, shed the blood of the people, and transfix the people's breasts with bayonets? Remember that you are the children of peasants, that you are the children of the Russian people, and that in the villages where you were born your own brothers who are remaining home are also agitating, are also demanding land and liberty, and that the government is sending other troops to shoot and beat them. Why will you defend the government? . . . Soldiers and sailors—we, the legally elected representatives of the peasants and workingmen, declare to you that without Parliament the government is illegal. Orders which it may now issue have no legal force. We call on you.

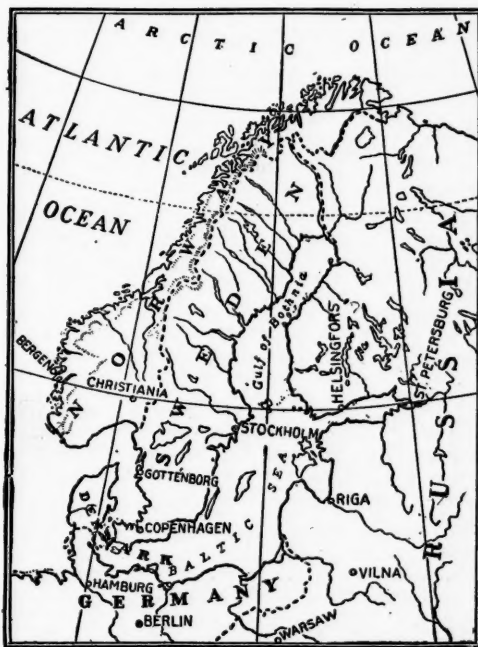
*Stolypin
Says Soldiers
are Loyal*

In reply to this appeal, Premier Stolypin announces that the government is absolutely certain of the loyalty of the majority of the troops. He points to the enthusiastic reception given the Emperor and the Grand Duke Nicholas during the visit of the Czar to his Guards at Krasnoye-Selo. In spite of his cheerful assurances, however, at this same visit an attempt was made on the life of Grand Duke Nicholas, who is hated for his reactionary tendencies, and who is looked upon as a possible dictator in case reaction actually triumphs. The attempt was made by members of the Imperial Guards. It is probably true that as a whole the troops are not as yet disaffected. The great majority of them are probably still devoted to the Czar, but the work of disintegration is going on rapidly, and the end will come,—perhaps sooner than the revolutionists themselves expect. A real revolution, in which the army will join, to begin with a general strike, is confidently predicted by the Radicals in October or November, when the peasants have taken in their harvest and the next visit of the tax-gatherer is due.

*The Mutiny at
Helsingfors*

A gigantic military conspiracy, aiming at the simultaneous capture of Russia's three great sea fortresses,—Sveaborg, Kronstadt, and Sevastopol,—planned by the Revolutionary League, was prematurely brought to light by the mutiny at the first-named stronghold on July 31. Sveaborg, which is a strong fortification guarding the Finnish city of Helsingfors, consists of seven small rock-islands in the Gulf of Finland, all but one of which fell into the hands of the mutineers. The sappers and seven companies of artillery, with some of the infantry, suddenly attacked their officers, and the entire garrison flamed out in revolt. Ma-

chine guns and other munitions were seized, and later on the other island of Skatudden, nearer the mainland, was also captured. It looked as though several of the naval vessels would also fall into the hands of the mutineers, one of them, the cruiser *Pamyat Azova*, being actually captured and held by the revolutionists for twenty-four hours. By the aid of the warships in the harbor, the mutiny was soon put down with a loss of between five and six hundred lives on both sides. Following the affair at Sveaborg, another premature and unsuccessful mutiny broke out among the sailors at Kronstadt, which, it will be remem-



THE BALTIC SHORES ARE THE CENTER OF RUSSIAN MUTINY.

(It was just out of Helsingfors, the Finnish capital, that the mutiny at Sveaborg occurred in July.)

bered, guards St. Petersburg. This, however, was also soon put down, and the general strike which was expected to follow upon these outbreaks did not take place, most of the organizations refusing to obey the call. Although these revolts were premature and soon put down, thereby damaging the prestige of the revolutionary organizations, the mutiny at Kronstadt lasted long enough to make the Czar eager to leave Peterhof, the palace of which stands on the coast under the very guns of the citadel port.

"One Vast
Anarchy."

The answer of the Russian people to the dissolution of their representative body was first an ominous silence, and then a number of serious mutinies in the army and navy, followed by the opening of a terrorist campaign of an extent and violence hitherto unparalleled. Assassinations and outrages have been carried on by the wholesale, particularly in Poland. The associations of reactionary fanatics known as the "Black Hundreds" have announced that for every assassination by the revolutionists they will kill some prominent Radical, and Dr. Herzenstein, a prominent Jewish leader of the Constitutional Democrats in the outlawed parliament, was assassinated on August 1 in his home in Finland, as the first victim in this campaign. However, as Dr. E. J. Dillon outlines the situation in his editorial statement in the *Contemporary Review*, "if the plight of the Duma is pitiable, that of the crown is much worse."

It has enormous evils to answer for. But it is naturally, not supernaturally, blameworthy, whereas it is now made answerable for every misfortune, every calamity, that overtakes the land. The Czar himself, who but yesterday was the most powerful sovereign on the globe, is virtually imprisoned in Peterhof or in Czarskoye Selo. General Trepov has become invisible. In the interior anarchy is rampant. In the province of Voronezh the peasants have just annihilated twenty estates. The government is unable to discharge the primary functions of a government: it cannot protect life and property, not even the lives and properties of its own men. In the very prisons it is powerless. The houses of detention, which are said to be tenanted by "the really best men in Russia," are scenes of disorder and bloodshed, because the inmates, aware of the universal contempt in which the authorities are held, frequently mutiny and break the rules and regulations. Not even in military barracks and on battleships are the government masters. Hence, the Czar was lately forced to humiliate himself and his country to an extent unparalleled in the history of civilized nations by requesting the British Government not to send a squadron to Russian waters. "I am not master in my own house," is what his message amounted to. And this avowal he made to the British Government. "Why does he not make it to his own people?" deputies of the Duma ask.

His own people would seem to be the last to be sought for advice. According to reports on good authority, early in August, Czar Nicholas had actually requested the English King and the German Kaiser (who met at Friedrichshof on August 15) to advise him as to how far he ought to trust his people.

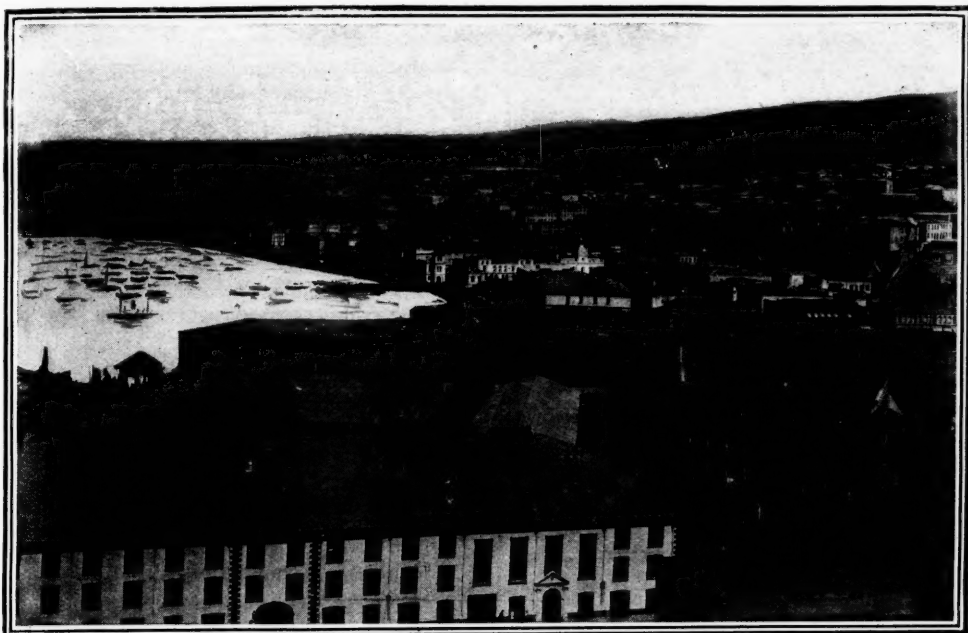
Japan's
Exploitation
of Asia.

Reports of the deliberate, well-thought-out intention of the Japanese Government to nationalize practically all her industries and exploit Man-

churia and Korea with state and private capital receive some confirmation from the recent observations of American and British consuls in Japan and China. It is announced authoritatively at Tokio that a company is about to be formed by the government, jointly with private capitalists, for the working and development of the mines, railways, and forests of Manchuria. A number of new steamship lines are projected, and extensive plans for the financing of these vast enterprises have been matured. Mr. Jacob Schiff, the New York banker, who has recently returned from a tour of the island empire, is (as we stated in our July issue) hearty in his praise of the self-restraint and earnestness of the Japanese people. In a recent article in the *North American Review*, Mr. Schiff declares that in Manchuria Japan will compete in good faith. There is to be expected, he declares, no closing of the door, but fair warning is given that Japan means to dominate the East, and that commercial advantages there can be gained only by fair and free competition. The killing (on July 16 and 17) of five Japanese seal-poachers, and the wounding and capture of a number of others, by an American guard on St. Paul's Island, one of the Pribilof group, in the Bering Sea, was a regrettable incident, but it will cause no international complications. It is true that Japan was not a party to the treaties between the United States, Great Britain, and Russia for protection to sealing in Bering waters. It remains true, also, however, that these Japanese fishermen had no right within the three-mile limit of an American island. It is to be hoped that the incident may result in another treaty, making Japan a party to the agreement to prohibit all pelagic sealing.

Mr. Root and
the Rio
Conference.

Upon the opening of the third Pan-American Conference at Rio Janeiro, on July 23, Señor Joaquim Nabuco (Brazilian Ambassador to the United States) was elected president, and Secretary Root and Baron Rio-Branco (Foreign Minister of Brazil) honorary presidents. The American delegates were given chairmanships on several important committees, including the committee on the Drago Doctrine, William I. Buchanan; commercial relations, Prof. Paul Reinsch; the codification of laws, Dr. L. S. Rowe; patents, ex-Governor Montague; sanitation, Julio Larrinaga, Porto Rican commissioner to the United States; publications and general welfare, Van Leer Polk. Mr. Gonzalo Quesada, Cuban Minister to the United

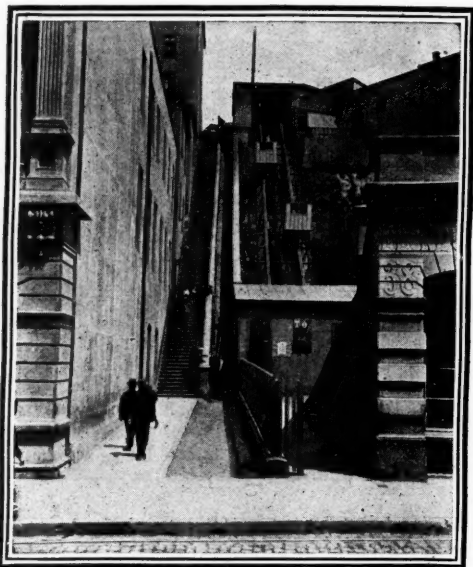


Photograph by Franklin Adams

A GENERAL VIEW OF VALPARAISO, CHILE, SHOWING THE HARBOR AND ENCIRCLING HILLS.

States, was appointed chairman of the Committee on the Bureau of American Republics. At this writing (August 20) the conference is still engaged in discussing more or less routine business, although a number of important subjects have come up for debate. The questions of arbitration and the Drago Doctrine (opposing the collection of debts from governments or individuals by force) are the thorny ones before the gathering, and it is about them that the most widely differing opinions will be expressed. Other questions of continental interest are those of the Pan-American Railway and port regulations. Secretary Root's visit to South American cities has been one round of cordiality and ovation. His noteworthy diplomatic speeches at Rio, Buenos Ayres, and Montevideo have been reported all over the world. In the words of the *Jornal do Brazil*, of Rio, all South America heartily joins in the sentiments contained in this sentence from the Rio speech,—a sentiment quite consistent with the upholding of the Monroe Doctrine: "We wish no victories but those of peace, no territory except our own, and no sovereignty except sovereignty over ourselves, which we deem independence." Mr. Root left Buenos Ayres for Valparaíso, early in August, but, owing to the earthquake, confined his visit there to one of condolence.

The terrible earthquake at Valparaíso, Chile, early on the morning of August 16, following within a few months of the destructive earthquakes in Alaska and California, has called attention anew to the seismic belt which is said to extend along the Pacific coasts of both the American continents. Parallel to the Chilean coast, along its 2,300 miles, is the same mountain chain which lies at the back of the State of California, and along this chain volcanic forces are in constant activity of some sort. As in the case of San Francisco, there were two distinct heavy shocks, about ten minutes apart, at Valparaíso, and, while much of the destruction of life and property was caused by the earthquake, a large proportion was also due to the fires which broke out immediately afterward. Three hundred and eighty distinct shocks occurred during Friday, Saturday, and Sunday (August 17, 18, and 19), and Santiago, the Chilean capital, seventy-five miles to the southeast, besides a number of smaller towns,—including Los Andes, Vena del Mar, and other places,—suffered severely, Los Andes (it was reported on August 20) being practically destroyed. Several landslides added to the destruction. It was estimated that about one thousand lives were lost, and one hundred thousand people made homeless



Photograph by Franklin Adams.

THE ASCENSOR OR CABLE RAILWAY OF VALPARAISO.

in Valparaíso and vicinity. August is the Chilean winter, and the people, gathered on the surrounding hills, in fear of further earthquake shocks, suffered from exposure to the cold and lack of food and drinking water. Martial law was declared in Valparaíso on the 18th, and the troops assisted in the work of rescue and keeping order. The exact extent of the disaster will probably not be known for weeks. It will be remembered that, with telegraphic communication practically unimpaired, the most inaccurate reports of the San Francisco disaster were given to the outside world during the first few days after the earthquake and fire. Communication with Chile's afflicted cities was cut off for days, and even the extent of the damage to the capital (Santiago) is not known at this writing, although it is reported that the capitol building has been destroyed. Santiago, however, has not suffered like its port. It is certain that the entire business section of Valparaíso is wrecked and much of it

burned, while many government buildings, —including the arsenal, the prefecture of police, the navy department building, and some schools,—have been badly injured.

Extent of the Loss.

Valparaíso, which is the principal city of the South American west coast, has been visited by earthquakes many times in the past. It is a fortified seaport and a manufacturing town of considerable importance. The largest South American port on the Pacific coast, it had a population of from 150,000 to 160,000, many of English and German stock. The city is built on a bowl-shaped volcanic formation, which has made it a veritable death trap in an eventuality of this kind. The volcanic rock upon which the city is erected is so close to the mountain side that there is no escape from the south, only one railroad enters from the north, and the sheer hills are in the rear, while in front is the bay, and beyond the Pacific Ocean. Our illustration shows the precipitous cliff formations which surround the city, making elevating railways necessary to transport the people from the business section to their homes on the hills. It is a noteworthy fact that, just as in the case of San Francisco, the low-made ground of Valparaíso near the water's edge suffered most. We expect to give our readers next month an article on Chile and Peru, with especial reference to the economic loss this disaster will inflict on the Chileños,—and from which their political and commercial rivals, the Peruvians, are sure to benefit.



Photograph by Franklin Adams.

THE SOLDIERS' AND SAILORS' MONUMENT IN VALPARAISO.

(Almost totally destroyed by the earthquake of August 16.)

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From July 20 to August 20, 1906.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

July 20.—Winston Churchill opens the reform campaign for governor of New Hampshire.

July 22.—The American Federation of Labor issues an appeal to organized labor throughout the country to become active in independent politics.

July 24.—Secretary Wilson announces that the meat law will permit the sale of foreign meat products, except in seaboard States....Congressman John Sharp Williams is renominated by the Democrats in the Eighth Mississippi District.

July 27.—Secretary Wilson issues rules for the enforcement of the new meat inspection law.

July 31.—A conference between the Interstate Commerce Commission and leading railroad managers of the country is held in Washington....Michigan Republicans renominate Fred. M. Warner for governor, and urge the election of United State Senators by direct vote.

August 1.—Iowa Republicans renominate Governor Albert B. Cummins (see page 201).

August 2.—Michigan Democrats nominate Charles H. Kimmerle for governor, and endorse William J. Bryan for the Presidency....North Dakota Democrats nominate John Burke for governor.

August 7.—Iowa Democrats nominate Claude R. Porter for governor, endorsing the candidacy of William J. Bryan for the Presidency.

August 11.—Samuel Gompers, head of the Federation of Labor, declares, in an interview at Washington, that the employment of coolies on the Panama Canal is a direct violation of law.

August 15.—Nebraska Democrats nominate Ash-ton C. Shallenberger for governor and indorse William J. Bryan for the Presidency.

August 16.—Speaker Joseph G. Cannon is renominated for Congress by the Republicans of the Eighteenth Illinois District, and endorsed for the Presidency....Texas Democrats nominate Thomas M. Campbell for governor.

August 17.—The first election in Alaska for delegates to Congress results in the choice of Thomas Cale for the long term and Mr. Waskey for the short term, both the miners' candidates....J. S. Harlan, of Chicago, is appointed by the President to the Interstate Commerce Commission.

August 19.—District-Attorney Jerome, of New York, issues a public statement, announcing that he will run for governor if nominated by the Democratic convention.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

July 21.—By imperial ukase, the Czar dissolves the Duma, relieves M. Goremykin of the premiership, and appoints M. Stolypin in his place.

July 23.—The members of the Duma, having assembled at Viborg, in Finland, address a manifesto to the people urging them to refuse support to the autocracy....In the British House of Commons, Mr. Birrell withdraws the clause in the

education bill providing for a separate department, headed by a minister, for Wales.

July 25.—Pedro Monte is chosen President of Chile for a five-year term.

July 27.—The British naval estimates introduced in the House of Commons show a reduction of \$12,700,000.

July 28.—The Russian authorities pass sentence on the Sevastopol mutineers; four are condemned to death and eighty-three to imprisonment.

July 30.—The Labor and Social Democratic parties in the Russian Duma issue a passionate appeal to the army and navy....General Oku is appointed chief of staff of the Japanese army (see page 304)....The British House of Commons passes the education bill by a majority of 192.

July 31.—Russian troops at the Sveaborg fortress and Skatudden barracks, near Helsingfors, Finland, mutiny; the outbreak is suppressed after a great loss of life.

August 1.—Debate on the education bill begins in the British House of Lords.

August 2.—The colonial marriages bill passes the British House of Commons.

August 3.—The workmen's councils in Russia declare a general strike.

August 4.—The British Parliament adjourns to October 23.

August 6.—The Russian revolutionary societies issue a call to the people to rise and overthrow the Czar's government.

August 7.—The general strike in Russia is called off.

August 8.—The Russian cabinet appropriates \$27,000,000 for famine relief.

August 9.—The Spanish cabinet votes to ignore the Papal protest in regard to civil marriages.

August 10.—It is officially announced that the Persian Government has issued a decree granting to the people of that country a national assembly.

August 11.—The Grand Duke Nicholas, uncle of the Czar, narrowly escapes assassination by soldiers of one of the Guard regiments.

August 12.—The Grand Duke Nicholas declines the position of Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army with dictatorial powers.

August 14.—The terms of the Pope's encyclical (dated August 1) upholding the French clergy in their opposition to the separation law, and refusing to accept the French Government's plan for culture associations, are made public.

August 18.—A rebellion breaks out in Santo Domingo, under General Navarro....Some of the Palace Guards in Havana rebel against their officers.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

July 20.—A treaty of peace between Guatemala, Salvador, and Honduras is signed on board the United States cruiser *Marblehead*.

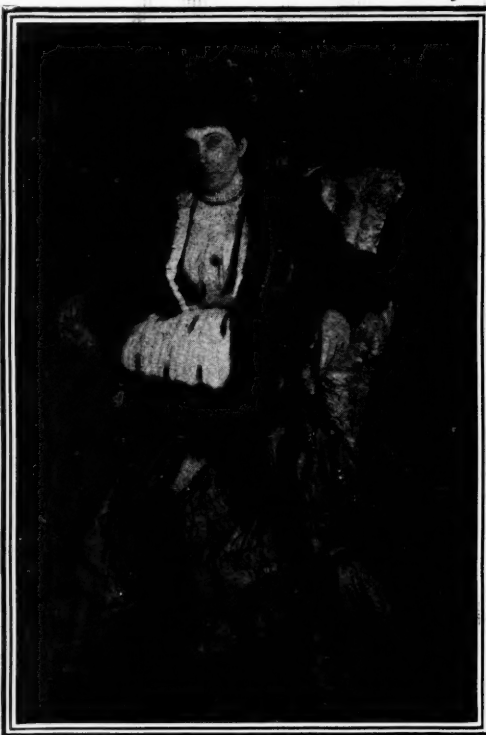
July 23.—The Pan-American Congress meets in Rio Janeiro....The Interparliamentary Peace Conference holds its first session in London.

July 24.—The Interparliamentary Conference passes a resolution to enlarge the scope of agreements among nations in favor of arbitration.

July 27.—Secretary Root is warmly welcomed at Rio Janeiro.

July 31.—A settlement of the Samoan affair is announced, the United States having paid to Germany the award of \$20,000.

August 6.—The Pan-American Conference at



THE LATE MRS. CRAIGIE ("JOHN OLIVER HOBBS").

Rio adopts resolutions in favor of arbitrating all disputes between South American states.

August 7.—The killing of five Japanese poachers by Americans on one of the Aleutian Islands and the taking of twelve Japanese prisoners for seal poaching by the revenue cutter *McCulloch* are reported to Washington.

August 11.—Secretary Root, in a speech at Montevideo, upholds the Monroe Doctrine.

August 12.—King Menelik of Abyssinia signs the Franco-Italian-British treaty relative to commercial equality and railway construction in his country.

August 14.—A heated discussion is had at the Rio Conference over the Drago Doctrine.

August 15.—King Edward arrives in Germany on a visit to Kaiser William; the formal confer-

ence between the two monarchs takes place at Friedrichslof....Secretary Root, in a speech at Buenos Ayres, compliments Argentina on its prosperity and speaks of the "unwritten alliance" between that country and the United States.

August 17.—The committee on the Drago Doctrine at the Rio Conference has decided to report in favor of asking the governments of the world to consider the advisability of presenting this measure to the Hague conference.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

July 20.—The will of Alfred Beit leaves great sums to charity and education in England, Germany, and Africa (see page 300).

July 24.—There is a heavy fall on the Russian Bourse.

August 1.—The British Association for the Advancement of Science meets at York.

August 3.—Fire causes a loss estimated at \$3,000,000 in the international exposition at Milan.

August 4.—The Italian steamer *Sirio*, from Genoa and bound for Buenos Ayres, runs on a rock off Bajos Hormigas, near Palos, Spain, and many lives are lost.

August 7.—The Milwaukee Avenue State Bank, of Chicago, is placed in the hands of a receiver, investigation having shown the desperate financial condition of the bank resulting from alleged plundering and mismanagement on the part of its president and cashier.

August 10.—Fifty-five persons are injured in an accident on the Fort Worth & Denver City Railroad near Fruitland, Texas.

August 11.—Ten warrants are issued in Chicago for the officials of the defunct Milwaukee Avenue State Bank....The strike of the switchmen on the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad ends....Justice William J. Gaynor, in a test case in Brooklyn, gives it as his opinion that the charge of a second fare by the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company to Coney Island is illegal.

August 12.—Secretary of the Navy Bonaparte, speaking on anarchism and its remedy, before the Cumberland Chautauqua (Maryland), proposes drastic treatment for this evil....Riots caused by the refusal of passengers to pay a second fare to Coney Island result in police interference and the injury of several passengers.

August 13.—The annual Grand Army of the Republic encampment opens at Minneapolis....Seventeen ice dealers and six ice companies are indicted in Boston, charged with conspiracy to advance the price of ice.

August 15.—Governor Glenn, of North Carolina, issues an address to the people of the State, announcing that in the future the militia will be instructed to fire on lynching crowds....A compromise is reached between the Brooklyn Rapid Transit and the New York City authorities, taking the form of an agreement to issue a rebate check upon the payment of each second fare to Coney Island, this check to be redeemable if the courts decide against the legality of the charge.

August 16.—A negro is lynched at Greenwood, S. C., after Governor Heyward has plead with the mob to let the law take its course....R. B. Brown, of Ohio, is elected commander-in-chief of the G. A. R., at the meeting at Minneapolis.

August 16 and 17.—Several heavy earthquake shocks, followed by extensive fires, cause great destruction of life and property in Valparaiso, Santiago, and other Chilean cities; communication with the outside world is cut off, and the extent of the disaster is not known.

August 20.—Two uprisings against the Cuban Government are reported from the provinces of Santa Clara and Pinar del Rio; the "exclusiveness" of the Palma régime is objected to; the insurgents, though few in number, include some of the veterans of the Spanish war; in a battle at Hoyo Colorado, about twenty miles from Havana, the insurgents are defeated; it is rumored that the purpose of the rebels is to attack American property so as to bring about active American intervention under the provisions of the Platt amendment.

OBITUARY.

July 20.—Brig.-Gen. Edmund Rice, U. S. A., 64.

July 22.—Russell Sage, the New York financier, 80....Lieut.-Gen. Baron Kodama, of the Japanese army, 51....Rev. Dr. J. A. R. Rogers, one of the founders of Berea College, Kentucky, 78.

July 23.—Major John Eagan, of the First Artillery, U. S. A., a veteran of the Civil War, 69....Julius Ruger, of Brooklyn, New York, a veteran of the Civil War and a portrait painter, 66.

July 24.—Dr. George W. Atherton, president of the Pennsylvania State College, 68.

July 28.—George T. Bispham, of Philadelphia, lawyer and author of law books, 68.

July 30.—John Holmes Goodenow, formerly secretary of the American Legation at Constantinople, 75....John Lawrence Toole, the famous English comedian, 76....Judge W. R. Houghton, of Alabama, a veteran of the Civil War, 64.

July 31.—Dwight Slate, of Hartford, Conn., one of the foremost mechanical experts in the United States, 90....Professor A. H. Thompson, of the United States Geological Survey, 67....Carl A. Weidner, a portrait and miniature painter, 41.

August 1.—Chief Justice Manuel Monteverde Sedano, of the Supreme Court of Cuba, 50....Edward Uhl, president of the New Yorker *Staats-Zeitung* corporation, 63....Aimé Joseph Edmond Rousse, lawyer and member of the French Academy, 80.

August 2.—Isaac D. George, first president of the International Typographical Union, 69.

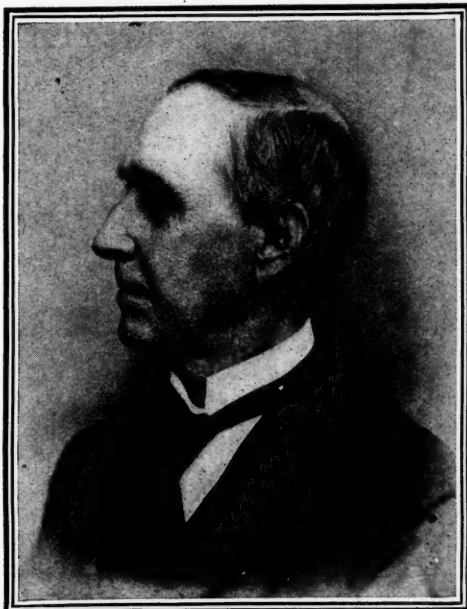
August 3.—Sir Sydney Hedley Waterlow, formerly Lord Mayor of London, 84.

August 4.—Rear-Admiral Charles Jackson Train, commander of the Asiatic Fleet, U. S. N. 51....The Duke of Rutland (John James Robert Manners), 88....Justice Robert Sedgwick, of the Supreme Court of Canada, 58....William B. Hanna, presiding judge of the Philadelphia Orphans' Court, 71.

August 6.—Captain A. B. Drum, superintendent of the Arlington National Cemetery and Civil War veteran, 64.

August 7.—William Imrie, one of the founders of the White Star Line of steamships, 71.

August 8.—Rev. Dr. J. Addison Henry, a prominent Presbyterian clergyman of Philadelphia, 72



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THE LATE NEW YORK FINANCIER, RUSSELL SAGE.

....Theodore Justin Dominique Roustau, French minister at Washington from 1882 to 1891, 72.

August 9.—Dr. James Weir, of Owensborough, Ky., former professor of medicine, and author of several medical works, 50.

August 10.—Rev. Dr. William E. Clark, of the New York Methodist Episcopal Conference, 70.

August 11.—Col. B. G. Stone, of Catskill, N. Y., a Civil War veteran and a landscape artist, 79.

August 12.—William B. Norman, a well-known New York auctioneer, 69....Professor Samuel Louis Penfield, Yale University, 50.

August 13.—Mrs. Pearl Mary Teresa Craigie ("John Oliver Hobbes"), the novelist and dramatist, 39....Ex-Judge W. H. Whiteman, of the Supreme Court of Arizona, 60....Dr. J. B. McCaw, of Richmond, Va., a Civil War surgeon, 84.

August 14.—Ex-Congressman George B. Fielder, of Jersey City, N. J., a veteran of the Civil War, 64....Francis H. Smith, of Washington, Conn., one of the first official reporters of debates in Congress, 77.

August 15.—Eugene Schieffelin, an old-time merchant of New York and an artist, 80.

August 16.—Rebecca S. Clark ("Sophie May"), writer of books for children, 74....Rev. Dr. Richard Eddy, Universalist clergyman and an author and historian, 74.

August 17.—Rev. Dr. A. M. Wynn, of the Southern Methodist Episcopal Church....Gustave H. Mosler, of Margaretville, N. Y., painter, 31.

August 18.—Rev. Joseph W. Cross, the oldest graduate of Harvard University, 98....Alexandre Luigini, French conductor and composer, 51.

August 19.—Charles Baker, of Brooklyn, N. Y., artist, banker, and veteran of the Civil War, 62.

MR. BRYAN'S RETURN AND OTHER CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



"WILL THEY STAND THE NEW CZAR?"
From the *Press* (Philadelphia).



JUMP THROUGH.
Bryan has been indorsed by Tammany at a special meeting called by Leader Murphy.—
From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



"BRYAN'S COAT OFFENDS THE LONDON TAILOR."—
News Item.
UNCLE SAM: "Me, too!"—
From the *Herald* (Boston).



THE KING AND THE COMMONER.
From the *Press* (New York).



CHORUS OF DEMOCRAT MAIDENS: "Twenty lovesick maidens we."—Patience.—From the World (New York).



DEMOCRACY: "Say, how are we going to build a platform when the G. O. P. has sawed all the timber?"—From the Blade (Toledo).



THE ONLY WILLIAM J. BRYAN.
"I wonder if I can stand it until 1908?"—
From the Post-Intelligencer (Seattle).



ALTHOUGH PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT HAS "IRREVOCABLY" REFUSED THE THIRD TERM NOMINATION, IT MAY COME TO THIS IN 1908.

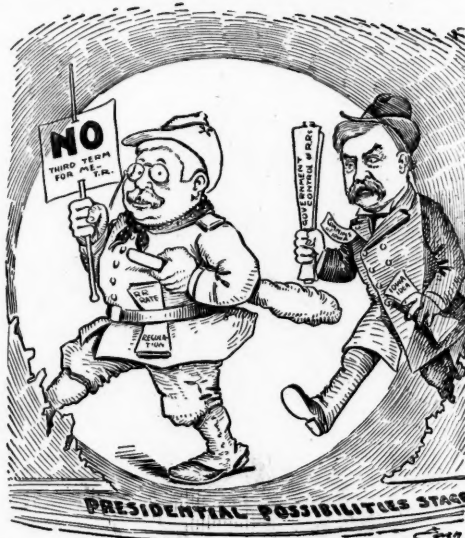
From the *Spokesman Review* (Spokane).



PEACEMAKER ROOSEVELT: "I've mended worse rips."
From the *Star-Journal* (Pueblo).



UNCLE SAM: "The kids are in bed and all is well."
From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle).



GOIN'S AND CUMMINS OF THE POLITICAL STAGE.
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

Although Mr. Bryan occupies the first place in the cartoons of the month, President Roosevelt is never neglected, and his activities furnish the draftsmen with endless opportunities. The success of Governor Cummins in Iowa has brought him forward among the presidential possibilities, as the cartoon above indicates. Corporation prosecutions seem always to appeal strongly to the sympathies of the pictorial satirists. Mr. Root's South American trip has inspired a good many cartoons, and Mr. Jerome's proposed candidacy for the governorship of New York has furnished a welcome topic.



AT LAST!
From the *Press* (Philadelphia).



DISTRICT-ATTORNEY JEROME GETTING AWAY WITH THE GOODS.
From the *Herald* (New York).



"WHEN THE PIE WAS OPEN'D THE BIRDS BEGAN TO SING."
From the *Herald* (Boston).

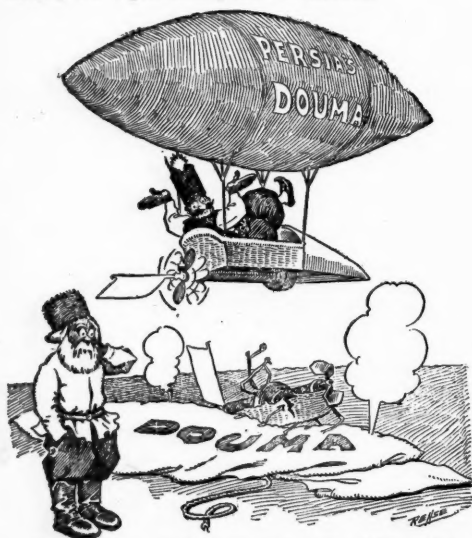


FISHING IN THE TRUST POND.
UNCLE SAM: "Gosh! I wish they were all this easy to catch."—From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



"WHEN WILL IT BURST?"
From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

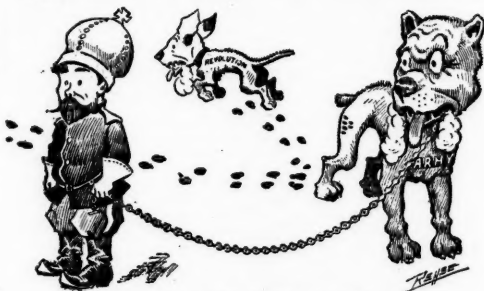
The American cartoonists have by far surpassed their European contemporaries in the strength and suggestiveness of their allusions to the situation in Russia. Mr. Rehse, of the *St. Paul Pioneer Press*, has of late shown remarkable instinct for hitting off significant public situations.



THE CZAR TO THE SHAH OF PERSIA: Mine didn't fly long."—From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



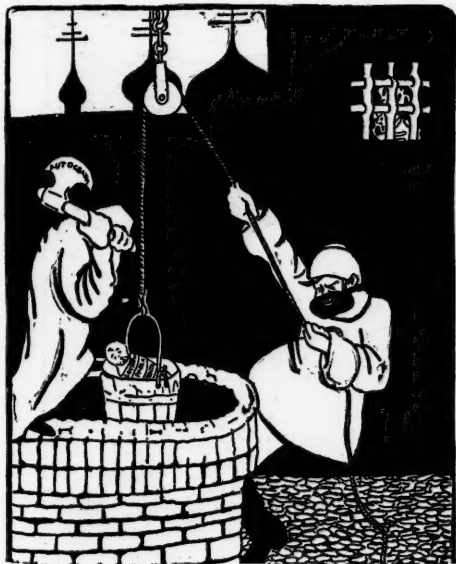
HAVING BEEN GIVEN A GLIMPSE OF THE SUN, RUSSIA OBJECTS TO GOING BACK TO THE DARKNESS.
From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).



THE RABID DOG'S WORK IS DONE.
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



WHAT A BIG DIFFERENCE A BIG DITCH MAKES.
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



ON THE EVE OF DISSOLUTION.

The Power of Russian People has sufficed to drag the baby (Parliamentary Government) to the edge of the well of blood, but there the executioner is waiting to give the death-blow.

From *Pasquino* (Turin).



THE HAPPY GRANDFATHER.

WILLIAM II. TO WILLIAM IV.: "A splendid youngster, is he not? Just like his grandpa, his mouth open the whole time."

From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich).



THE NEW GARDENER.

MR. BULL (to John Burns): "All previous attempts to grow anything in this particular plot have been dismal failures. This is a credit to you, John!"

From the *Daily Chronicle* (London).



THE SAME OLD ROAD.

The road to Russian Liberty is paved with good resolutions.

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



THE ALTERNATIVE.

RATIONALIST: "I think I'd better let myself drop into the disestablishment pond; it's really the only way out of this little difficulty."



A CRUEL DISAPPOINTMENT.

T-R T-SAR: "This is a cruel disappointment. I've unchained him, but he won't go my way—I must have him destroyed."

EXAMPLES OF SIR F. C. GOULD'S HUMOR IN THE "WESTMINSTER GAZETTE."



FOX AND GEESE.

A new game for the school playground, in which Mr. Birrell and the English clergy and the English children take part.



THE SINS OF THE SMART SET.

Mr. BRILL: "Humph! A little sensational; but I'm afraid there's a lot of truth in it. After all, it's only a small set, and I don't own them as my sons and daughters." "WESTMINSTER GAZETTE."

THE GOVERNOR OF IOWA.

A SKETCH OF ALBERT BAIRD CUMMINS.

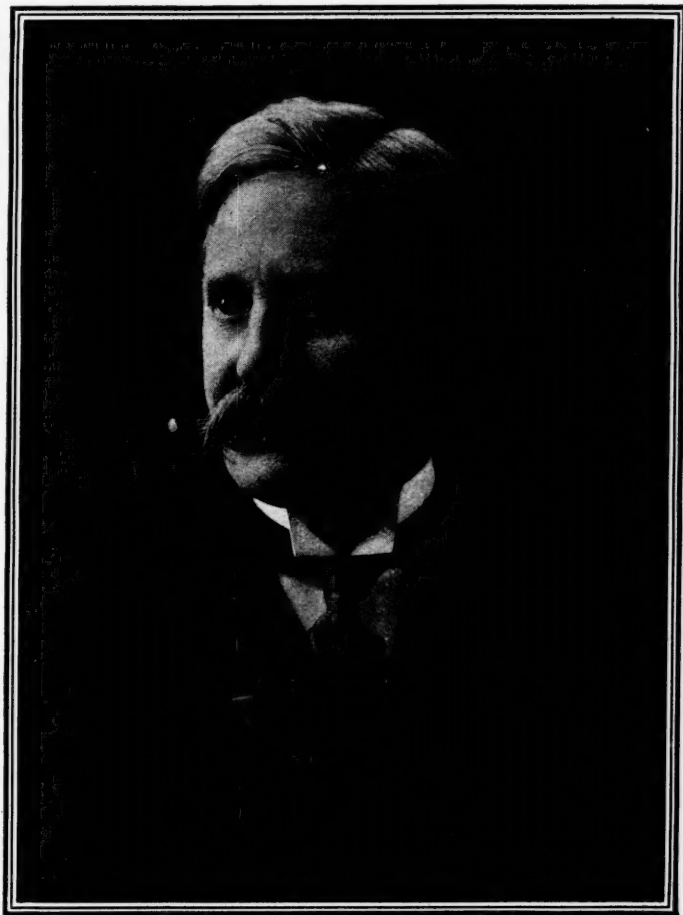
BY JOHNSON BRIGHAM.

THE Republican State Convention held in Des Moines, Iowa, on August 1 closed a preliminary campaign which in intensity has had few parallels in the history of American politics. It brings, more prominently than ever, before the country at large an interesting personality,—that of the nominee of the convention for Governor,—Albert B. Cummins.

With the tumult of convention day still ringing in his ears, it is not easy to approach the subject of this sketch with judgment undisturbed. But those who for years have summered and wintered with Governor Cummins should at least be able to avoid the excessive praise and dispraise which marked the extremes of the campaign.

The strained situation, now happily relieved, was in some respects unique in Iowa politics. Never before had any Governor of Iowa aspired to serve for three consecutive terms. Never before had any Governor of Iowa been compelled to fight for his life,—his political life,—to secure a nomination. And yet, contradictory as it may seem, never before did a candidate for renomination enter the field with more personal reluctance.

Governor Cummins' administration had been chiefly marked by the advocacy of two reforms. The first was in a degree educational,—namely,



HON. ALBERT BAIRD CUMMINS.
(Nominated for a third term as Governor of Iowa.)

tariff reform, with its corollary, reciprocity.* I use the term "educational," because it was clearly impossible for the Governor to do more than discuss the subject in the abstract, using such illustrations as the times suggested, relying on an educated public opinion for ultimate results. The second, and the one on which

* His signed article on "Reciprocity" in the later editions of the new "Encyclopedia Americana," vol. 16, shows the thoroughness with which Governor Cummins has studied the subject.

the recent campaign was made by him, was intensely practical, taking the form of opposition to what the Governor regarded as the over-intimate relations which the great railroad corporations traversing Iowa sought to maintain with the dominant party in the State, the too-evident purpose being to control, or at least unduly influence, legislation.

A FRIEND OF THE RAILROAD WHO OPPOSES
RAILROAD "INFLUENCE."

Himself for several years prior to his first nomination for Governor an attorney for railroad corporations, and consequently familiar with every detail of railroad assessments, it became evident at the first meeting of the representatives of the railroads with the Executive Council of the State, that the new Governor's pre-election assurances to the public and the oath taken by him at his inauguration really meant something! Let it suffice to say that assessments on railroad property in Iowa at the recent sitting of the council, in August, 1906, aggregated over fifteen millions* more than in 1901, when Mr. Cummins became Governor.

But this is not the head and front of his offending. The representatives of the railroads would have forgiven Governor Cummins for protecting the other tax-paying interests in the State; but it soon became evident to them that the new Governor was not tractable; was not imbued with the old idea that politics is a combination of interests, a system of log-rolling in which the few, ostensibly in the interests of the many, successfully serve their own interests. His former experience as an attorney for corporations, far from unfitting him for his new duties as chief of the State Board of Equalization, the better fitted him for them, enabling him to analyze the complicated figures of the railroad statisticians and follow without confusion the subtle arguments of the railroad solicitors.

The Governor did not stop with the matter of equalizing assessments. He used every opportunity, in addresses at home and abroad, in messages and campaign speeches, as in his personal intercourse with the thinking men of the State, to impress upon the public mind the necessity of emancipating politics and legislation from the undue influence of railroad corporations. He early became an advocate of the abolition of railroad passes, especially to State officials and convention delegates, and the establishment of a primary law, which should control and regulate the selection of

candidates for all elective offices, from the lowest to the highest. It was in line with this policy that Governor Cummins recommended the movement, now in successful progress, for a convention of delegates from the several States of the Union, to be held in Des Moines, on September 5, 1906, to consider the advisability of moving, by States, for the passage of a constitutional amendments securing the election of United States Senators in all the States by a direct vote of the people.

The underlying motive of Governor Cummins, as I read it between the lines of his speeches and messages and in his votes in council, is not revenge,—for he is the friend of railroads and of railroad men; not retaliation, for he fully recognizes the right of corporations to present their side of all questions affecting their interests. It is, rather, a determination,—strong from the first, but, through the logic of events, now become a master-purpose,—to use all the power he possesses as Governor of the State, all the influence he may have as chief citizen of Iowa, to compel the railroad corporations to abandon their present policy of interference with politics and legislation and to restore "the reign of the common people."

Governor Cummins' record shows that this is no new purpose born of opportunity. It is, rather, an evolution of the views held by him even when he was an attorney for corporations. From first to last during his career as attorney he kept himself aloof from all forms of service recognized as "lobbying."

When, in 1888, he became a legislator in Iowa's lower house, his intimates, who knew the trend of his mind and purpose, were not surprised to find him the author of a bill the sole object of which was to solve for Iowa jobbers, retailers, and consumers the long-and-short-haul problem of that period.

The writer, then editor of an Iowa daily, was one day waited upon by a committee of local jobbers and urged to support "the Cummins bill," which, in their judgment, fully met the demands of the time. A few days later the same committee waited upon the editor to request that he oppose the measure.

"On what ground?" asked the astonished editor. "Have you found a flaw in the bill?"

"No," was the answer, "but we have discovered that its author is a railroad attorney, and that leads us to suspect there's a fatal flaw in it somewhere."

It was beyond the comprehension of men unacquainted with the future leader of the railroad-reform movement in Iowa that an

* In actual value, more than \$60,000,000.

attorney for railroad corporations could as a legislator be other than a lobbyist in disguise.

FIGHTING THE BARBED-WIRE TRUST.

Among the few men who at the time correctly sized the young legislator was William Larrabee, now known and respected as the reform Governor of that period, his book, entitled "The Railroad Question," everywhere regarded as a standard authority on the relations of railroads to the State. In a recent speech at Independence, Iowa, ex-Governor Larrabee spoke from his personal knowledge, declaring that Governor Cummins had really started the battle against corporate greed, in his celebrated case against the barbed-wire trust; that in 1888, as a member of the Iowa Legislature, he had rendered valuable service in securing the present railway laws of Iowa, and that as Governor in 1904 he had vetoed a bill by which the railroads had hoped to "New Jerseyize" Iowa.

Perhaps Mr. Cummins' greatest victory at the bar was that to which Governor Larrabee referred. To the suit brought by him against the barbed-wire trust he gave the best powers of a vigorous manhood, strengthened by a large experience and by knowledge gained from long and thorough study of corporation law. This powerful trust had threatened the life of the small competing corporations which had sprung up in the West, and, by advancing prices, had levied a heavy tax upon Western farmers and herders. Case after case was brought and appealed, until finally the issue was fought out before the Supreme Court of the United States, and the result was the complete overthrow of the monopoly.

PUBLIC SERVICE UNMIXED WITH SORDID MOTIVES.

Few men have paid as dearly for political honors as has Mr. Cummins. Five years ago he was in the enjoyment of a large and fast-

increasing income derived from a general practice of the law. He was conceded to be at the head of the bar of his State and the peer of any lawyer in the Northwest. His home life was well-nigh ideal. As dispensers of hospitality, Mr. and Mrs. Cummins had (as they still have) no superiors at the State capital. Surrounded by troops of friends, his professional services in demand beyond the limits of his power to respond, he exchanged the highest honors of his chosen profession, and with them

the pleasures of social life, unmixed with political complications and partisan antagonisms, for a career inevitably involving pecuniary loss; a position inviting him to laborious days and an infinite variety of annoyances and cares.

In the fierce light which during the recent campaign was thrown upon his official career, the minutest inspection did not bring out a single suggestion of motive for holding office other than an ambition to serve the public faithfully and efficiently, and a purpose to push forward to completion the reform work so vigorously begun by



MRS. ALBERT B. CUMMINS.

him. It has been charged that the Governor still cherishes his early ambition to enter national politics. Possibly; but if that be an unworthy ambition, few men in public life can be held to be altogether worthy!

HIS REAL MODESTY.

Far from regarding himself as the only man in Iowa who could lead his party to victory in the coming campaign, Governor Cummins earnestly urged his political friends to unite upon some one who would take up his work and carry it on to conclusions. But his influential supporters were found to be united in insistence that the successful inaugurator of reforms could best carry them on to conclusions; that the people looked to him for definite results and would not let the fetch of the two-term precedent stand in the way of his second reflection.

THE "IOWA IDEA."

A few words relative to the so-called "Iowa Idea" and Governor Cummins' identification therewith. Let the governor himself tell the story.

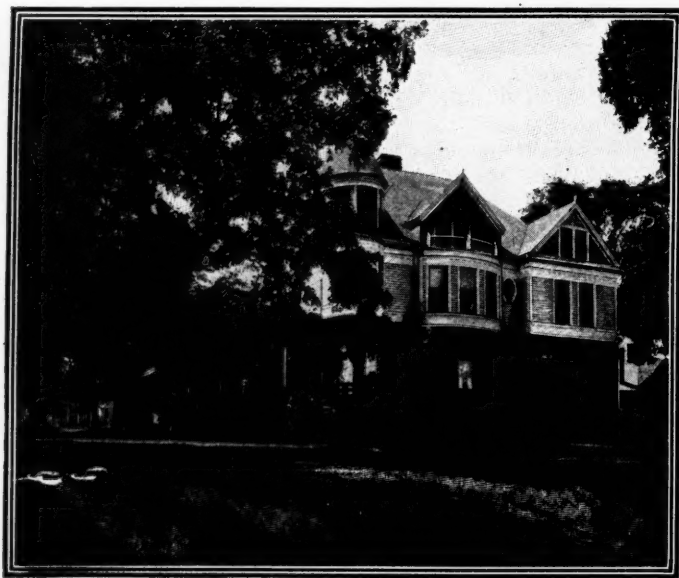
At the McKinley birthday banquet in Omaha in 1903, the governor said: "There is no 'Iowa idea,' if that phrase is meant to convey the impression that the Republicans of my State hold any idea which distinguishes them from Republicans in other States." Referring to criticisms on his Minneapolis speech in 1902, he declared that the language criticised was taken from the Iowa Republican platform of 1901 and 1902, which only reiterated the national Republican idea of protection, as enunciated by William McKinley in 1896. "The phrase 'Iowa idea,'" he added, "was coined by one who would rather make an epigram than state a truth."

FROM CARPENTER'S BENCH TO LAW OFFICE.

Even the most general survey of a career so resultful; even the merest sketch of a character so forceful, cannot be wholly devoid of interest. The subject of this sketch was born, of Scotch-Irish parents, in Carmichaels, Pa., on February 15, 1850. He early learned from his father the carpenter's trade, and at the age of twelve was earning good wages with hammer and plane. Ambitious to obtain an edu-

cation, at the age of seventeen he entered Waynesburg College, Pa. He worked his way through college, taking the four years' course in two, at the same time serving as tutor, and filling in his vacations by teaching a country district school. In passing, it might be stated that his *alma mater* recently honored him with the degree of LL.D.,—a degree also conferred upon him about the same time by Cornell College, Iowa. The future governor spent the next four years feeling for his place in the world, and incidentally fitting himself the better for effective service at the bar and in public life.

A short term as clerk and another as express messenger sufficed him. He then became a self-taught surveyor and railroad builder. Though scarcely more than a mere youth, he was made chief engineer of the Cincinnati, Richmond & Fort Wayne Railroad, and, soon after, was tendered a position as chief engineer of a branch of what is now the Santa Fé system. But by this time he had determined upon the law as his profession, and in January, 1873, at the age of twenty-three, he became a student in the then well-known law office of McClellan & Hodges, Chicago. In 1874 he married Miss Ida L. Gallery, of Eaton Rapids, Mich., and, strong in their faith in his future, the young couple returned to Chicago, where, soon after, Mr. Cummins was admitted to the bar. The fledgling attorney devoted the next three years to an all-round practice in the Chicago courts. In 1878 he removed to Des Moines, and entered into a law partnership with his brother, J. C. Cummins. In 1881 he received from ex-Chief Justice George G. Wright, of Des Moines, an offer of a law partnership, which he was glad to accept. In due time he became the senior member of the firm of Cummins, Hewitt & Wright, for years the best-known law firm in the State. It has been his good fortune to crystallize into practical value, to his clients as an attorney and to the State as its chief executive, the rich and varied experiences of his early life.



GOVERNOR CUMMINS' RESIDENCE IN DES MOINES.

These experiences,—as carpenter, teacher, clerk, express messenger, surveyor, railroad builder, etc., account for the man's encyclopedic knowledge, which has been the surprise of many.

HIS MENTAL CONTROL.

The mental discipline acquired by him during those early years, aided by a retentive memory, has enabled him to pass from one subject and one task to another without mental friction and consequent brain-wear. Let me give a recent illustration of this rare quality of mind. In the midst of the hurly-burly of warring factions on the day before the recent convention, surrounded by friends all eager to have their word with him, the governor happened to see a State official, who, a month before, had been requested to examine certain plans for the furnishing of the State's new Historical Building. Turning at once from the overshadowing theme of the hour,—contesting delegations, committee representation, etc.,—he proceeded to make inquiries, which showed that every detail under consideration a month before was still fresh in his mind. Finally satisfied, he dismissed the subject by declaring himself "ready to alter the specifications and sign the contract." The next moment he was deep in the consideration of another matter brought to his attention. In every board of which the governor is an official member, the same knowledge of detail, or insistence on knowledge, is apparent.

CAREER IN STATE POLITICS.

In 1888 Mr. Cummins took his seat as representative in the State Legislature, having been elected on what was then termed an anti-Prohibition Republican ticket. In all legislation aside from prohibition he acted with the Republicans. His belief in high license, as a more practical temperance measure than prohibition, for a time alienated him from many in his party; but subsequent legislation seems to have approved his judgment, for high license with local option now appears to be the settled policy of his State.

In 1894 he was a candidate for United States Senator, receiving more votes than any one else, except ex-Governor Gear. In the McKinley campaign of 1896 he was the national committeeman from Iowa, and in 1899 he was an unsuccessful candidate for the Senate. In all these years he was frequently honored by his party with convention chairmanships, and by many and various organizations with invitations to make addresses.

AN ATTRACTIVE PERSONALITY.

In personal appearance Governor Cummins is about five feet eleven inches in height; broad-shouldered, deep-chested, erect. His hair has turned to an iron gray, but his dark eyes are undimmed, and, notwithstanding the fatigues of a campaign of unprecedented severity, there remains a strong suggestion of color in his tanned cheeks. He is what is termed a handsome man, unless that term implies effeminacy. As was said in substance of another, wherever he takes his seat there is the head of the table. Not that he suggests that other in self-assertion, for few men are as good listeners as he, and as courteous in discussing the views of others. He is a generous, genial nature. Those are no meaningless words which fell from his lips on the night before his nomination, when his friends called him out to speak at what they termed, in advance of the fact, "a ratification meeting." First thanking them for this renewed expression of their friendship, he exclaimed: "My heart is so full of affection and gratitude toward my friends that it has no room for thought of revenge upon my enemies."

The secret of the man's success in politics is an unusual combination of brain-power and flow of soul.

The Governor's rare power of expression, whether in informal speech or in formal address, always leaves his hearers with at least some single phrase or sentence impressed upon the memory. Quoting almost at random, let me conclude with a few sentences illustrative of this power:

Before the Roosevelt Club in Denver, June 2, 1902:

Do not fear the title of reformer, but put the true meaning upon the word. The reformer who destroys is the enemy of mankind. The reformer whose cry is "march on" is the benefactor of his race. In a country like ours, whose foundation stones were laid by the hands of patriots, and whose structure is cemented by the blood of heroes, where justice and equality have been the watchwords of our commanders, what we need is not revolution, but evolution. We need reformers who recognize that what we have is good, but that it may be better; men and women who devote their lives not to tearing down, but to building up.

At the reciprocity convention in Chicago, August 17, 1905:

I appeal to the protectionists of the United States to stand by the old doctrine; to follow Blaine and Garfield, Sherman and McKinley, and not to confound the time-honored and time-tried policies exemplified in these leaders of men and leaders of thought with the selfish fallacies that are now proclaimed as the faith of the fathers.

SIR ROBERT HART: THE BRITON WHO BECAME A DICTATOR IN CHINA

BY RALPH H. GRAVES.

IF it is true that Great Britain intends to permit the overthrow of Sir Robert Hart, for nearly half a century Inspector General of Imperial Maritime Customs in China, that fact alone gives evidence of what his master genius has done to uplift the civilization of his adopted country. A score of years ago it would have been unthinkable that commercial Europe would jeopardize its interests by allowing the "Wizard of the East" to be supplanted. If there is to-day enough honesty, enough efficiency, and enough method in the Chinese Government for the unaided control of its most important department, the new conditions are due to his influence and to the teachings he has imparted since he began to devote his life to the service of a nation distinguished for the rottenness of its business system, the insecurity of its state finances, and the disrepute of its international credit.

BUILDER OF AN EFFICIENT GOVERNMENT.

Incredible as it seems, this Irish-born immigrant rose to be a power greater than the Dowager-Empress in the management of Chinese affairs. For a quarter of a century he was a dictator. No treaty of importance was ratified by the Tsungli-Yamen until his counsel had been sought. No foreign loan was contracted without his sanction. No improve-

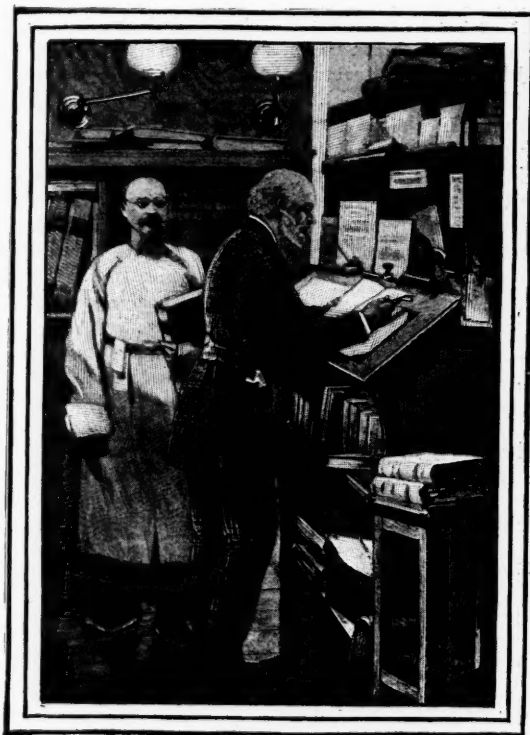
ment in the finances of the land was perfected unless his was the guiding hand. And not until he had established China on a firm commercial footing among the nations of the earth

did there arise in the empire a faction strong enough to threaten his position seriously. Even now, though the modernized court has assumed to appoint two native administrators as his superiors, there is doubt whether Great Britain will suffer him to be deposed from the post created after the collections of Chinese customs were intrusted by treaty to foreign supervision.

What will be the outcome of the present complication is a secret of the future, as yet unsolved by the students of international politics in the Orient. But whether or not the time has come for China to take

charge of her own business, the story of Sir Robert Hart and his work will continue to be the story of the empire's rise from commercial depravity.

Out of nothing the British reorganizer built up a system unsurpassed by any machine of its kind in the world. When he went to China in 1854 as a student interpreter in the Hong-kong consulate, just after he had been graduated from Queen's College in Belfast, only the single port of Shanghai was included in the customs service. Nine years later, when he became inspector general at the age of



SIR ROBERT HART.

(In his office at Peking.)

twenty-eight, there were but five ports under the department. The foreign commissioners, appointed at the request of the merchants of Shanghai after the Taiping rebellion of the early fifties, had hardly made a start toward rescuing the service from the chaos of native control.

CHINA'S "FINANCIAL PILOT."

Having mastered the Chinese language and familiarized himself with local conditions during four years of work as a deputy in the service, which he had entered after obtaining special permission to resign his British consular post in 1859, the inspector general set about the gigantic task of creating a modern business organization amid surroundings of superstition, ignorance, prejudice, and dishonesty. The results of his labors are known. How he accomplished them has not been explained, for his modesty is proportionate to his achievements.

In less than two decades he had become necessary to China. The government recognized him as the helmsman of the only branch from which it could expect revenues honestly collected and sure to materialize. He was rewarded with decorations of rank that made him equal to the highest mandarins. Gradually his authority extended beyond the customs. He became the financial pilot of the empire. In matters of foreign policy and trade, his word was law. The Dowager-Empress, Tsi-An, despot of the Imperial Court, bowed to his judgment. When the Tsungli-Yamen authorized a treaty or instituted a public improvement, although its decrees made no mention of the British censor's name, the author of the treaty or the inventor of the innovation was Sir Robert Hart; and when some one must be found to put into effect the new plan, the inspector general of maritime customs was the only man fitted for the responsibility.

Without relaxing his watchfulness over the customs service, which grew rapidly until it embraced all the ports of entry along the 4,000 miles of coast line, he undertook and perfected the government's system of lighthouses on ocean and rivers, organized and directed an armed fleet patrolling the water of the empire for protection against smugglers, arranged the big loans that were to link the Flowery Kingdom with the western world, and finally established the national postal system, of which he became inspector general in 1896.

From every nation of the West, as well as from his native Oriental employers, he received the highest honors. In Great Britain

he was created a baronet in 1893, having already become a Knight of the Grand Cross of the Order of St. Michael and St. George (G. C. M. G.) in 1889. To those who know China, a mention of the native titles conferred upon him is enough to show his standing. After being decorated with the Civil Rank of the Third Class in 1864 and of the Second Class in 1869, he received the Red Button of the First Class in 1881, and the Peacock's Feather and Double Dragon four years later. Then, in 1889, he was elevated to the Ancestral Rank of the First Class of the First Order for Three Generations, which signified that the Emperor of China ennobled his ancestors for three generations, thus making of him a mandarin and a companion of the princes. His last elevation, in 1901, involving the brevet title of Junior Guardian of the Heir-Apparent, followed the Boxer troubles, during which, although reported in London dispatches as among the dead, he continually risked his life in behalf of Peking's foreign residents, refusing Prince Ching's repeated offers to promote his escape from the apparently doomed British colony.

Along with his new honors in China, he was the recipient of decorations year by year from the sovereigns of Europe. So great had his fame become, and so much were his services in demand as a diplomatic arbiter and financial go-between, that they vied with one another in doing him honor. The King of Sweden and Norway made him a Chevalier of the Order of Wasa. Belgium appointed him a Grand Officer of the Order of Leopold. The Vatican named him a Commander of the Order of Pius IX. The King of Italy conferred on him the badge of the Order of the Crown. France elected him to the Legion of Honor. Germany, Austria, and Portugal awarded him similar decorations. Educational institutions of Europe and America gave him honorary degrees. Scientific societies voted him their fellowships. Mercantile associations sent him testimonials in every language spoken by traders the world over. At the height of his power Great Britain offered to make him her Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to China. That was in 1885. It was at the personal solicitation of the Dowager-Empress that he declined the position, choosing once for all to lay aside any ambition he might have had in the line of active politics and to remain behind his desk in the little office at Peking.

From that desk he has directed the customs. Of his 5,000 subordinates, including nearly

1,000 foreigners carefully selected, few have seen his face. To the majority he is simply the I. G. But every one of the 5,000 knows that the I. G. is always "on the job." He has left Peking but three or four times in thirty years, and then only for very brief periods, having once gone to England and twice visited important ports, and it is said that he keeps track of every important employee in the service. It is not a vague, general surveillance, but a personal watch maintained by a perfect system of secret espionage, an endless regularity of formal reports, a continual application to details, and an unceasing industry.

DISCIPLINE OF THE CUSTOMS SERVICE.

The I. G. has been compared to a great spider in the center of a web of countless threads. His slightest beck causes the mesh to respond from its farthest borders. His grip is as firmly fixed upon the outermost strand as upon his nest in the middle.

Wherever the import and export duty (7 per cent. *ad valorem*) is collected by the customs men, there his influence reaches. In each office, with its local commissioner, is the same rigid discipline that prevails at the Peking headquarters. The clerk who fails to report for duty promptly at ten o'clock in the morning is punished. The bookkeeper making a mistake in his figures, or the man filing a carelessly written report, is sure to receive a rebuke, at least. A little bird, they say, flies to Peking with the news of every dereliction, and then there comes to the commissioner at the port a missive known as a T. L., which, being interpreted, is a threatening letter from headquarters. In the T. L. the commissioner is notified that So-and-So is not doing his work properly, or that such-and-such a duty is not well done. If the T. L. fails to accomplish its purpose, an official head falls. The I. G. is relentless.

UNIQUE OPPORTUNITIES FOR YOUNG MEN IN THE SERVICE.

With the aid of his secret service and his masses of reports, then, the Inspector General watches every cog in his vast machine. Though it is his custom to take immediate notice only of shortcomings and not to mete out praise for work well done, on the theory that every man should do well what he has to do, promotions for the efficient are certain. The British scion of nobility or the Harvard graduate or the German student holding a commission from Sir Robert has learned long ago that his lot is cast with an organization

offering as high a rate of pay and as good prospects as any corporation on earth.

These foreign employees, personally nominated by the I. G., hold the more important positions of the service. They represent about twenty nationalities. Most of them are gentlemen by birth and education. The first requirement in every case is a knowledge of the official Chinese language, and the newcomer must spend two years at Peking to study it. Thereafter, too, he has to stand examinations periodically, his chances of promotion depending upon his proficiency, inasmuch as few of the native subordinates can speak any other tongue. With the natives, however, the foreign officer has little dealing outside of office hours. Every port has its foreign colony, socially separate, and to the customs men are furnished comfortable lodgings rent free. So long as they do their work for the "Benevolent Despot," as Sir Robert has been called, they are expected to enjoy life—a lazy life it is outside of the office, but one which few ever abandon when once they have become inculcated with the *bacillus Orientalis*.

In addition to the high salaries, the customs officers have side attractions that hold them in the service. Their standing socially and in a business way is equal to that of the diplomatic and consular corps members, and while they are subjected, like the army and navy officers stationed in the Orient, to frequent transfers, they have the consolation of generous vacations, as a furlough of two years, with one year's pay, follows the first seven-year period of service and each five-year period thereafter.

For the guidance of the 5,000, Sir Robert issues frequent volumes of orders and statistics. These are called the Yellow Books, and there are hundreds of them, written for the most part by the I. G. himself. They contain rules and amendments to rules, instructions covering the values and appraisement of all classes of imported merchandise, and orders concerning every detail in the conduct of the service. It has been said that the Yellow Books alone represent enough work for an ordinary lifetime; but Sir Robert has crowded into fifty years the labors of a dozen ordinary lives, and the books have been a mere incident of his activities.

AN OFFICE UNTOUCHED BY SCANDAL.

A feature of the Imperial Customs—one that has been cited as evidencing the Inspector General's foresight and ability to avert the suspicions of his suspicious employers—is the method of handling the moneys collected. Not

one cent passes through the hands of the foreign employees, but all the moneys are paid through Chinese hands into a native bank having branches at the different ports. Thus, the supervising aliens, although each transaction is under their eyes and thoroughly checked, cannot be open to a charge of mishandling the funds. The result of the plan has been that the Imperial Customs has never been touched by a breath of scandal, in which respect it stands alone among the divisions of the Chinese Government. Sir Robert's system, as a further precaution against distrust, also provides that a native *taotai* shall act as a supplementary local commissioner at each port. The *taotai*, while he has little to do with the actual management of the business, produces the sentimental effect of giving to the natives a feeling of direct interest in their own affairs.

THE "I. G.'S" SOCIAL QUALITIES.

The central office at Peking, so far as the I. G. is concerned, is divided into two sections, outer and inner. In office hours Sir Robert, like the clerks, stands behind a high desk in the outer room, where he is easily approached by those who have business to transact with him. After hours he retires to the inner sanctum, made famous as "the little room from which the Chinese Government gets its orders," and there he continues his labors long after his staff has disappeared in the afternoon.

Yet, despite his fondness for work, the Inspector General is the most sociable, as well as the most amiable and unassuming of men. At his home, set back in a spacious yard, he gives frequent entertainments that are celebrated in the capital. In the foreign colony there is no courtesy more welcome than an invitation to one of these gatherings. Of the I. G.'s fad all Peking has heard. It is a native band of musicians—the only Oriental orchestra, they say, that is trained to render Occidental music in first-class style. The band has been maintained by Sir Robert for a score of years or more, and the older he grows the more he delights to boast of its attainments. That, in fact, is the only subject on which the modest autocrat has ever been heard to boast.

Since Lady Hart and their three children returned to England, many years ago, Sir Robert has lived alone most of the time, and in the long intervals between visits from his family his social instincts have been his salvation. The whole-souled enjoyment he finds in entertaining, say his friends, has served to avert the ill-effects of continued labors upon his health, and at seventy-one years he still

retains the vigor of his middle age. Either in the native costume, which he wears at court functions and on all other occasions where his Chinese rank requires it, or in the white linen suit of his working hours, he presents a striking figure, full of energy as well as of dignity and forcefulness. In his domestic circle he has been as successful in exerting his wonderful influence as in official life. His native servants idolize him, and through all the dangers of the Boxer rebellion they formed both a guard in the open and a detective force in secret for his protection, keeping him informed of the perils near by, while his equally trusted agents at court were continually watchful in nipping the plots hatched against him by jealous rivals. That the protection was complete was shown when even the powerful Li Hung Chang was thwarted in an attempt to carry out his plan for the substitution of a German chief of the Imperial Customs. The subsequent fall of Li was followed by fresh honors for Sir Robert.

That Sir Robert Hart was able to reach his high position in China is attributable to his social qualities and his tact hardly less than to his genius for organization. He might have failed miserably, in spite of his industry and brains and mastery of detail, but for his ability to endear himself to the diplomatic representatives of the West and his tactfulness in dealing with the native powers. It is related that the I. G. was never known to break the slightest rule of native official etiquette, of which he was a close student in all its ramifications. Always respecting the national prejudices and customs of the country, he succeeded in avoiding the rocks upon which other foreigners at the imperial court had seen their fortunes wrecked, achieving such popularity as no other alien had ever gained, winning such confidence from his employers as would have been impossible for another outsider to obtain, and piercing the barriers of Oriental distrust that had been hitherto impregnable.

As he was the only man living who could successfully urge reforms in a country hating reform, who could conduct negotiations for the benefit of Western commerce without exciting the suspicion of the East, the sole agent with judgment to proceed slowly enough and skill to advance fast enough, it was no wonder that the Inspector General of Imperial Maritime Customs became the most powerful force in the Orient. If China to-day can do without him or dictate to him, it must be that China has thrown off the shackles of prejudice that once prevented her from conducting her own affairs or her dealings with other nations.

ALFRED BEIT, DIAMOND KING, EMPIRE BUILDER.

BY W. T. STEAD.

IN the cemetery of Tewin, early in July, we stood by the grave of Alfred Beit, and the choir sang of "the peace of Jesus, perfect peace."

What a contrast this peaceful funeral to other scenes which many of the hard-bitten South Africans at the graveside had witnessed as the result of this man's energy, this man's enterprise, this man's ideals! At this graveside were many of the late Victorian representatives of the old Elizabethan adventurers who had found their Spanish Main in Rhodesia and the Rand, and who owed more to the man in the open grave than to any other save to the man who sleeps in the Matoppo. Through what exciting adventures, financial and military, had they not followed him! What battles were not fought for him! What conquests had he not inspired! What devastation had he made, and what homesteads had not gone up in fiery burnt-offerings at his bidding! "Peace, perfect peace!" now at the grave maybe, but in lifetime the rattle of the stamps in the Rand, the roar of bursting shell, the ring of the rifle, and the sad moaning of the victims of the war—these sound louder than the silver notes of the tuneful choir, and from the shaded, flower-strewn God's acre of Tewin we seem to see the vast sub-continent which this man helped to win, and then, being misguided, helped to ruin.

THE PARENTS OF RHODESIA.

Cecil Rhodes was the man, Alfred Beit the woman, in the political and financial marriage which had as its children the amalgamation of the Kimberley diamond mines, the opening up of the Rand, the conquest of Rhodesia, the raid, and the war. Rhodes was the father, Beit the mother, of Rhodesia. And in good sooth Alfred Beit loved Cecil Rhodes as Jonathan loved David, with a love and a loyalty passing the love of woman. Beit was essentially feminine in his mental characteristics. With his intuition he quickly conceived Rhodes' ideas, and mothered them to their birth. Nor did he limit his labors to their gestation. After he had brought them to birth, he continued to brood over them with ceaseless anxiety. These schemes were Rhodes' bairns; he loved them more for their sire than for

themselves. It is impossible to disassociate him from Mr. Rhodes, but it is as impossible to condemn him for his complicity in Mr. Rhodes' errors more strongly than we would censure the wife who, for good or for ill, for better or for worse, casts in her lot with her husband.

By this time everybody, even the most prejudiced, realizes the fact that Cecil Rhodes was a great man, of lofty ideas and of immense public spirit. He had initiative energy, courage, originality, and a passionate devotion to the country which gave him birth. People are only now beginning to realize that Alfred Beit was also a great man. His ideas, adopted from Rhodes in the first place, were not less sincerely held or faithfully served. He was superior to Rhodes in many things—in the quickness of his intuition, in the marvelousness of his memory, in his keen appreciation of men, in his financial genius. He was not inferior to him in courage, in resolution, and in the passionate devotion of his patriotism.

On all affairs political Mr. Beit surrendered himself absolutely to Mr. Rhodes. He became as clay in the hands of that imperial potter. But stronger even than his devotion to Mr. Rhodes was his devotion to his own family. He loved his old mother even more than he loved Mr. Rhodes. The Beit family had become Christian generations back. He was no son of the synagogue. For his own race he had little enthusiasm. For Germany, the land of his birth, he had much sympathy; but he elected to repudiate his German nationality, in order that he might be naturalized as a British subject. Then he was an Africander, and he was convinced that it was better for everybody that South Africa should be under the British flag.

If any one wants to know the kind of man Alfred Beit was, let him imagine the typical Randlord, the sordid and vulgar Hoggenheimer of the Radical lampoons, and then let him realize that Alfred Beit was in almost every respect its exact antithesis and antipodes. He was a man of refinement, sensitive as a woman, with the taste of an artist and the enthusiasm of a political visionary. Although a financier, he had a soul above finance. He was ever keenly interested in the great



THE LATE SOUTH AFRICAN MILLIONAIRE, ALFRED BEIT, IN HIS LIBRARY AT PARK LANE, LONDON.

affairs of mankind. He was much more intelligently concerned, for instance, in the internal affairs of Russia than most of our cabinet ministers.

HIS PART IN THE BOER WAR.

Alfred Beit was never hostile to the Dutch. If he had been allowed a free hand I do not believe there would ever have been a raid, and there never would have been a war. He accepted the necessity for the reform movement in Johannesburg on the word only of Mr. Rhodes, whom he regarded as a kind of supreme authority in politics. Everything Mr. Rhodes had taken in hand had prospered. He had obtained the charter, conquered Rhodesia, secured the support of the Africander Bond, and he had just been added to the Privy Council of the Empire. Who was Alfred Beit to oppose so heaven-sent a statesman in his own peculiar domain?

I first saw Mr. Beit after the raid in 1896. I had heard much about him, but I was not prepared to find him so charming, so simple, and so unassuming a man. He was expecting to go to jail for his share in the conspiracy. His doctor had warned him that his heart was so weak the excitement of arrest, trial, and imprisonment would probably prove fatal. Mr. Beit faced the prospect with characteristic imperturbability. It was all in the day's work. He had done what Rhodes wanted him to do. He had failed, and he was prepared to face the music and pay the bill. He did not say so; nothing was more foreign to him than swagger. But when he left me I felt that there was at least one other South African who was of the same metal as Rhodes.

On another subject he was always very emphatic. He always protested that the Transvaal could and would and ought to pay the thirty millions promised to Mr. Chamberlain

as its share of the cost of the war. But, of course, everything hinged upon the prosperity of the mines. Mr. Beit, like many other British South Africans, was reluctantly driven to the conclusion that it was impossible to develop the mines without Chinese labor. To that conviction he adhered to the end. He was ready to admit that politically it had been a bad move, but he maintained that it was a matter of life and death. Unless the mines were kept going the bottom would fall out of the economic situation in South Africa. As he was firmly convinced the mines could not be kept going without the Chinese, he accepted them as a disagreeable necessity.

Mr. Beit was one of the original promoters of the Chartered Company. He felt he owed it to Mr. Rhodes' memory to take a close, keen, and continuous interest in the development of Rhodesia. His last will and testament contains an emphatic confession of his faith in the Cape to Cairo Railway. Listen to his credo:

I believe that by the promotion, construction, and furtherance generally of railways, telegraphs (including wireless telegraph), and telephones, and kindred or other methods of transmission of persons, goods, and messages, civilization will be best advanced and expedited in Africa for the benefit of the inhabitants thereof, whether native or immigrant.

As he backed his credo by a legacy of £1,200,000, his faith was one which brings forth works. He also left £200,000 to be devoted to educational, public, and other charitable purposes in Rhodesia.

THE BEGINNINGS OF ALFRED BEIT.

Cecil Rhodes and Alfred Beit were born in the same year, 1853; both were of such weak and delicate constitutions that they were sent to Kimberley, not so much to make their fortune as to save their lives. Alfred Beit's father was a merchant in Hamburg. His mother—now an old lady of eighty-four—seems still to be in good health. His schooling was much interrupted by his ill-health, and he never enjoyed the advantages of a university education. He went as a lad of seventeen into the office of L. Lippert & Co., a Hamburg firm which did a large business in South Africa. After he had been a junior clerk for five years, the discovery of diamonds at Kimberley led to his being sent to South Africa. He was young, industrious, and capable. His health would benefit by the change. Off he went at the age of twenty-two, in possession, it is said, of about £2,000 capital. He traveled up country 400 miles in

a bullock wagon, and arrived at Kimberley just in the nick of time. Wernher (now Sir Julius) had been there four years earlier. Rhodes had but just arrived in Kimberley from Natal the previous year. The two men were strangers to each other, diverse in nationality, language, and temperament. Wernher and Beit met as employees in the firm of Jules Porges & Co., in which they subsequently became partners. Beit was interested in the Wernher properties for many years, even up to the time of his death.

When Beit first met Rhodes I do not know, but the following anecdote of how they met is credited to Rhodes himself. Everybody in Kimberley knew every one else, and Rhodes soon became aware that Beit was one of the few men who counted in the diamond fields. Sooner or later it was certain they would come together. Beit worked early and late in the office. Rhodes used to be much more in the open. "I called at Porges' late one evening," said Rhodes, "and there was Beit, working away as usual. 'Do you never take a rest?' I asked. 'Not often,' he replied. 'Well, what's your game?' said I. 'I am going to control the whole diamond output before I am much older,' he answered as he got off his stool. 'That's funny,' I said. 'I have made up my mind to do the same. We had better join hands,'" and join hands they did very shortly after.

THE GREAT DE BEERS' AMALGAMATION.

Diamonds are valuable because they are scarce. To produce too many diamonds is worse than to produce too few. To make diamonds pay it was indispensable to control their output. To do this meant to amalgamate the whole of the interests in one gigantic combination. To this work Messrs. Rhodes and Beit applied themselves. Rhodes supplied the driving power, Beit was the financial genius who enabled him to realize his vast and somewhat cloudy ideals. Nor was it only genius that Beit supplied. At one crucial moment it was his readiness to advance £250,000 out of his own pocket, or that of the firm he represented, which saved the situation. Beit advanced the money without commission or interest.

There is no need to repeat the oft-told story of the war of giants that ensued when Rhodes and Beit on the one hand, and Barney Barnato on the other, fought for the control of the diamond mines. The story is much more American than English in its atmosphere. In the end, in the year 1880, Beit and Rhodes

being at the time young men of twenty-seven, the De Beers Mining Company was formed, with a capital of £200,000, on which two years later a dividend of 3 per cent. was paid. To-day the De Beers Consolidated Mines, Limited, has an issued share capital of £4,475,000, in shares of £2 10s. each, of which 790,000 are 40 per cent. cumulative preference and 1,000,000 deferred shares, together with about £4,500,000 of debentures. Besides its vast undertakings in Cape Colony, the De Beers Company holds the preëemptive right to any diamond mines discovered in the territories of the British South Africa and Southwest African Companies, and its monopoly has hitherto been so well maintained that regular dividends of 40 per cent. were distributed for several years prior to the war, and are now being paid at the increased rate of 50 per cent. on the deferred shares. Beit was one of the two remaining life governors, the other being his partner, Mr. (now Sir) Julius Charles Wernher. At the present time the market value of the De Beers undertaking is between £42,000,000 and £43,000,000, and the company earned in 1900-01 a net profit of £2,688,000.

HIS MODEST MUNIFICENCE.

Of Beit's munificence the world has heard little. He preferred to do good by stealth and blush to find it fame. He gave a park worth £200,000 to Johannesburg, which was his largest known gift in his lifetime. He gave another estate—the Frankenwald—to Johannesburg as the site for a university, which by his will he has endowed with another £200,000. He gave £25,000 as a thank offering for his recovery to the Institute of Medical Science Fund of the London University, and he and his partner munificently endowed the Technological College, which is to be the Charlottenburg of South Kensington. He gave liberally to hospitals. He did not contribute to free libraries, but he made the largest gift that had been made for many years to any English university when he endowed a chair of colonial history at Oxford with an income of £1,310 per annum. His private charities were large but unostentatious. Whatever he gave he gave with a kindly sympathy which doubled the value of the gift.

BEIT'S LAST WILL AND TESTAMENT.

Beit's will follows afar off the will of Cecil Rhodes. As Mr. Rhodes bequeathed Groote Schuur to Cape Town, so Mr. Beit bequeaths his park, Borstler Jäger, to the city of Ham-

burg. As Rhodes created a special body of trustees to administer the £1,200,000 which he left for the extension of railway and telegraph communications in Rhodesia, Beit limited the number of his trustees to three—his brother, Otto; his partner, Sir Julius Wernher, and his lawyer, Mr. Hawksley. Like Rhodes, Beit left no money for religious purposes. "Educational, public, and charitable purposes"—the phrase is wide enough to cover everything, including religious endowments, if the trustees thought fit. The following table gives the chief bequests of the will:

Cape-Cairo Railway Trust.....	£1,200,000
University of Johannesburg.....	200,000
Educational purposes in Rhodesia.....	200,000
London University, College of Technology	135,000
London University, Medical Science Fund	25,000
Rhodes University, Grahamstown.....	25,000
Education in Transvaal.....	20,000
Education at Kimberley.....	15,000
Education in Cape Colony.....	15,000
Rhodes Memorial Fund.....	10,000
Union Jack Club.....	10,000
King's Hospital Fund.....	20,000
Guy's Hospital	20,000
London charities	20,000
Hamburg charities	20,000
Total	£1,935,000

Altogether it is probable the bequests in the will represent £2,500,000 devoted to public purposes, of one sort or another, of which £1,750,000 goes to Africa.

But to John Burns and to many others of his way of thinking Alfred Beit was a kind of devil. He was a kind of vampire-octopus draining the life-blood of South Africa. He was the typical landlord. He was the magnate at whose bidding the republics had been annexed after the homesteads of a nation had been given to the flames. He was Herr Beit, German-Jew, millionaire—what more need be said? To which I can only reply that while I regard the war with a detestation as deep as any man, and while I deplore as bitterly as any one the deplorable results of that great crime, I do not think that Mr. Beit from first to last did anything which he did not honestly believe would be for the benefit of the British Empire, of the world at large, and in the long run of the Boers themselves. That he deceived himself is possible enough. We all do that at some time in our lives, perhaps many times. But that Alfred Beit was as honest and straight and public-spirited a man as any I know of, that I feel certain, and I do not forget that I know John Burns.



THE LATE VISCOUNT KODAMA.



GENERAL BARON OKU.

KODAMA AND HIS SUCCESSOR.

A REALLY remarkable man, who, during his lifetime, was styled by those who knew the East, "the Japanese Kitchener," "the Japanese Richelieu," "the Japanese Leonardo da Vinci," and "the Japanese Napoleon," passed away when Viscount Kodama died on July 22, at the age of fifty-three.

Kodama's fame was little known outside of his own country, yet it was preëminently to him, "the brains of Japan's army," that was due the island empire's recent victory over Russia. He was chief of the Japanese General Staff, and while Oyama nominally commanded in the field, it was the little Baron Kodama whose brains worked out every detail of the campaign, and whose quick, virile intelligence really directed all the movements of the Mikado's armies. Kodama made the machine and operated it. It has been said that he knew the disposition not only of every division, but of every battalion and every company in his command of three-quarters of a million men. At the same time he was acting as governor of Formosa and directing the Japanese work of civilizing that island. This soldier-statesman was also artist, poet, financier, diplomat and man of the world. Richard Barry, the war correspondent, who knew him as well as any Westerner, said of him:

Kodama has exhibited in our age one of those rare individualities that are created out of the crux of a world-movement, as Cæsar was lifted into the niche that built the corner-stone of the Roman Empire, as Napoleon rose out of the French Revolution to lay the basis of modern Europe, as Alexander Hamilton hewed a place for us in our new world. . . . He will be classed with Hamilton, not with Cæsar or Napoleon, for he wrought not for himself. . . . His dream was to do well the extremely hazardous and twice delicate job of stripping from Japan her swaddling clothes and of ushering her, full born, into the white light of day. Greatly is he to be envied, for before his eyes were closed in the last hush he had seen his dream come true.

Just before his death Kodama was made Field Marshal, Commander in Chief of all the Japanese forces, was elevated to the rank of viscount, and decorated with the First Class Order of the Golden Kite. These were the highest honors his imperial master could confer on him.

Kodama's successor as chief of the General Staff is General Baron Hokyo Oku, who commanded the Second Japanese Army in the war with Russia. This was the army which landed at Dalny and swept up the Liau Tung Peninsula, defeating the Russians at Nanshan, Kaiping, Telissu Taschi-chao, and Haiching. General Oku is sixty-two years of age, and a veteran of the Satsuma rebellion of 1877-78.



STUDENTS AT WORK IN THE WHEELWRIGHT SHOP OF THE HAMPTON NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE, HAMPTON, VIRGINIA.

WHAT HAMPTON MEANS BY "EDUCATION."

BY ALBERT SHAW.

IN no other part of the country are there just now such marks of a varied and rapid progress as in the South. The towns are taking on new and modern forms through the awakening touch of manufacturing capital, and the country is changing through the application of better methods in agriculture. Forests and mines are yielding larger returns of wealth every year, and prosperity is far more widely diffused than ever before. The changes that have come about within fifteen or twenty years in all these regards are marvelous, even to those familiar with the development of the upper Mississippi Valley and the further Northwest.

Yet those acquainted with the resources of the South are well aware that this new economic movement is only in its beginnings. But a mere fraction of the water-power of the streams flowing from the Appalachian highlands has been utilized as yet for operating factories and generating electric power. The supplies of iron and coal are inexhaustible and will be drawn upon in ever-increasing quantities. As for agricultural possibilities, present results are not one-fifth of what may be reasonably expected in a future not very distant. The cotton, hemp, and other fibers,

the mineral deposits, the vast forests of hard wood and of pine—all these and many other considerations give assurance that the manufactures of the South are to be not only of immense extent, but of great variety. At present most of the Southern people live on farms or in country communities and are not well housed. With the rapid development of prosperity, human habitations throughout many States are destined to be rebuilt on a scale and in a manner that belong to an advanced civilization.

The wonderful opportunities that the South offers will inevitably attract from the outside a good deal of fresh capital and not a little sturdy labor, both American and European. Nevertheless, for the most part, the development that the South is destined to make in the next twenty-five years is going to be brought about through the efforts of the people now living in the South, with their sons and daughters, applying their own energy and skill, and using their own modest accumulations of productive capital.

Of these people now living in the South, nearly ten million belong to the colored race. Whatever fate may be theirs in the distant future, every one must know that for a long



EXAMINING MODERN PLOW.

time to come these colored people must continue to do a large share of the hard work that goes with Southern economic advancement. They will till the soil, build the roads, fell the forests, work in the mills, dig in the mines, and labor at many trades and handicrafts. In any progressive region the largest item in the list of productive assets is the energy and skill of the workers; and this must be true of the South. The training of the rising generation is more essential than anything else to the growth of the Southern States in all that is desirable by way of material progress.

It is more important to train the white race than the black, because the white race is dominant, and upon its well-being depends the maintenance of conditions under which other races may also hope to improve and prosper. If it were possible to do only the one thing and not the other, then it would be better for the colored race that all educational effort should be concentrated upon the training of



WORKING IN THE GREENHOUSES.

white children. For any one who understands the problems of the South must know very well that to concentrate educational effort upon the children of the colored race, and to neglect meantime the white children, would be not only harmful to the negroes, but disastrous.

The dominant race must be well trained, or the race that is inferior in numbers and position will suffer deeply in a hundred ways. It happens, however, that there is no need to neglect the colored race while training the white children, and the disposition on the part of a few people to divert the policy of certain Southern States in such a direction is strongly condemned by the controlling forces of public opinion. Everywhere the Southern States are providing for negro education. The present wealth of the South is not so great as to ren-



CLASS IN AGRICULTURE STUDYING THE MARKETING OF CROPS.

der it easy to raise the taxes necessary for the support of two sets of schools. All the more credit, therefore, is due to the Southern people for the manner in which they are endeavoring to provide education for the colored children.

This is their fixed policy, and they will not depart from it. It is earnestly to be hoped, therefore, that they will make the policy a pronounced success. Among many people of intelligence there is in the South a strong prejudice against the education of negroes, and it is a great mistake to refuse to see that there has been some foundation for such an attitude of mind. Everything depends upon the right conception of what education means. If education means to create in young negroes a distaste for the practical life and work that fall properly to their lot in this generation, education is a mistake. But if one has a



STUDENTS MENDING SHOES IN THE COBBLING SHOP.

wiser conception of education, and means by it the sort of early training that will increase the efficiency of workers and thus promote the character, security, and prosperity of communities, then education is certainly no mistake, but the most desirable thing possible.

Since, then, it is the policy of the Southern States to provide schools for negro children, it is of the utmost importance that these schools should be of the right kind, and that the State should be well repaid, by practical results, for the money it spends in providing schoolhouses and employing teachers. It is from this standpoint,—that of the right kind of education,—and from the additional standpoint of the present and prospective development of the South, that the earnest attention of intelligent Southern people ought to be directed to the remarkable work carried on at the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, located near Old Point Comfort, at Hampton, Virginia. Quite apart from its relation to race problems and Southern progress, Hampton would be worth careful study from the standpoint of its educational methods. In an article published some years ago in the RE-

VIEW OF REVIEWS I attempted to set forth these methods, under the title, "Learning by Doing at Hampton."

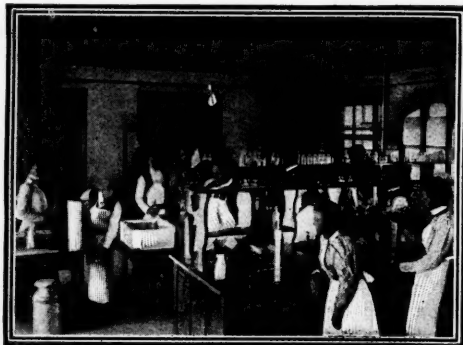
There is no institution in the world, in my judgment, which so well exemplifies the possibility of training young people through practical methods as does this institute at Hampton. It attempts to give its pupils standards of life and conduct, and so to lead them step by step as to have fitted them in a rounded, symmetrical way for usefulness in life before it sends them out into the world. Since the minds that control this institution understand that the pupils have lives of work before them, it undertakes from the very beginning to teach them how to work intelligently and efficiently, and it makes real workers of them, so that they may take their place in the outside world without any difficulty of adjustment.

They are instructed in all departments of Southern farming, and they manage to learn a good deal about the sciences that underlie agriculture. But they learn all these things experimentally, doing plenty of hard, practical work every day while learning from their in-

structors. In the same manner they work in the shops of the school and learn many practical trades. The girls in the school learn everything pertaining to cooking, sewing, and practical housekeeping, while also learning gardening and many other useful every-day subjects. The educational methods that have been developed at Hampton through a long experience are so notable that educators in other countries as well as our own have come to recognize their importance.

But for the South, the special reason for interest just now in the work at Hampton lies in the direct bearing of that work upon what the South hopes and means to accomplish for itself in the coming decade. In its shops and mills and on its farms, in its dairies and in its varied industrial departments, Hampton is year by year training hundreds of young negroes for fitness to participate in the work of Southern development. But it is performing a more important task than the training of skilled farmers or artisans, for it is training a generation of splendid teachers, each one of whom can go out and take charge of a negro school and make that school the center for improvement in the surrounding negro community.

Almost if not quite the chief obstacle toward the education of the negro race has been the lack of trained teachers, of the right attitude toward their work, to take charge of the schools for colored children. It is one thing for the State, or county, or district, to provide means to carry on the colored schools, and it



INSPECTING MILK.

is quite a different thing to secure a negro teacher, man or woman, who can make that school the center of real progress in the neighborhood. There are other institutions training negro teachers in the South and doing it admirably, but in my opinion Hampton is the best of all and the one that stands out as the conspicuous type.

The young woman or the young man trained at Hampton to go out and teach a colored school has totally different notions from those of the old-fashioned routine country teacher. The conventional work of teaching a country school has in all parts of the country heretofore been of a narrow character. It has been based almost entirely upon the idea that the education of children consisted in having them learn in a routine way the lessons set down in a series of elementary textbooks.

Most of this elementary textbook study has been of the mummy sort, pure and simple.

If this has been true of country schools for white children, it has not been less true, certainly, of those for young negroes. There was once a time when American country home life gave such a varied practical training to the boys and girls that the book learning was all that the teacher in the little red schoolhouse was expected to impart. Those earlier conditions of life, however, not uncommonly produced teachers of a considerable degree



A COOKING CLASS IN THE DOMESTIC SCIENCE BUILDING.



CLASS IN DRESSMAKING IN THE DOMESTIC SCIENCE BUILDING.

of originality and strength of mind, who knew how to make their schools count not a little for the culture of the community. Under the conditions of our own day it is desirable to make the school stand for a much larger factor in the training of the young, and it is necessary therefore that teachers should realize the importance of their duties and opportunities.

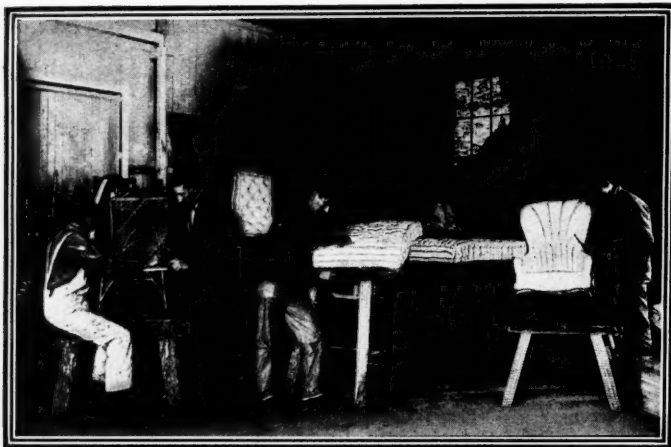
The Hampton system produces young men and women who can themselves do things, and their conception of what school teaching means is something very different from the mere old-fashioned learning by rote of daily lessons in dog-eared elementary textbooks. Each Hampton-trained teacher is expected to make the country schoolhouse the center for real neighborhood missionary work for the advancement of the colored race. These country teachers come back to Hampton at commencement time year after year, many of them to spend the summer in getting further training, and they are expected to report upon what they have been able to accomplish.

They use the schoolhouse grounds to give practical lessons in gardening. They teach simple kinds of manual training and show the children how they may be of use at home.

They give the girls lessons in neatness, and they expect these lessons to produce results clearly visible when the teacher makes her frequent rounds to visit the parents and to advise them upon all the practical problems of family life.

It is perhaps not necessary to dwell at further length upon this new conception of the work of the country teacher. Nobody can fully comprehend how much it signifies unless he has taken the trouble to follow up one case after another and learn what this new method of teaching means and how widespread and auspicious are the results. For let me repeat again, and yet again, that nowadays in the matter of popular education, everything depends on what one means by the word, and what methods one uses to produce the desired results.

What Hampton means by education is the fitting of young people for the work they have to do in life; and the method it uses is that of going straight at the desired end without wasting a day. For the Hampton Institute is a life, rather than a school. Its students are at work as well as at study. They are building up habits of order and self-con-



CHAIR-CANING, MATTRESS-MAKING AND UPHOLSTERING.

trol and steady industry. On the farm lands of Hampton or in the varied shops, where practical trades are both taught and worked at, the boys face all the conditions of practical toil. But they also learn that when the day's work is done it is feasible to use plenty of

soap and water, and to turn the mind to other useful, interesting things.

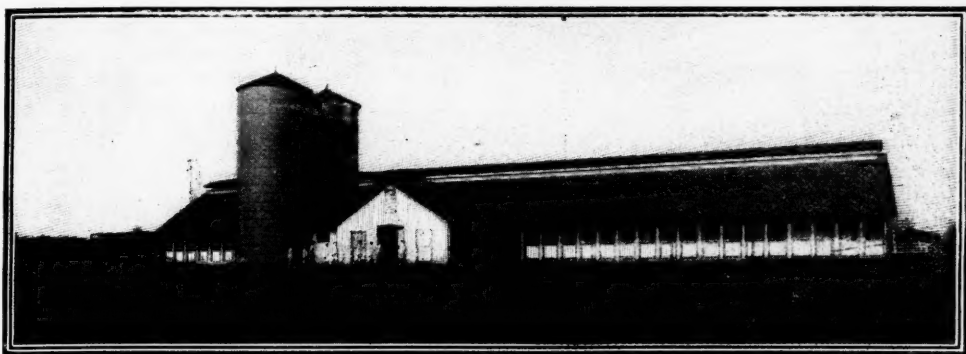
It is true that Hampton has facilities in its great barns, its model shops, its dairy, and its other departments of a far more elaborate and perfect sort than the young negro will be likely to find elsewhere in subsequent years. But the school supplies the corrective, for it carefully teaches him how to carry on a small farm under the conditions that the small farmer must expect to encounter. The girls are taught how to keep house in a very small

establishment on such an income as they may reasonably look forward to possessing.

One of the most interesting features of the Hampton Institute is the Whittier School for the small negro children of the immediate neighborhood. About six hundred of these



STUDENTS AT WORK IN THE MACHINE SHOPS.



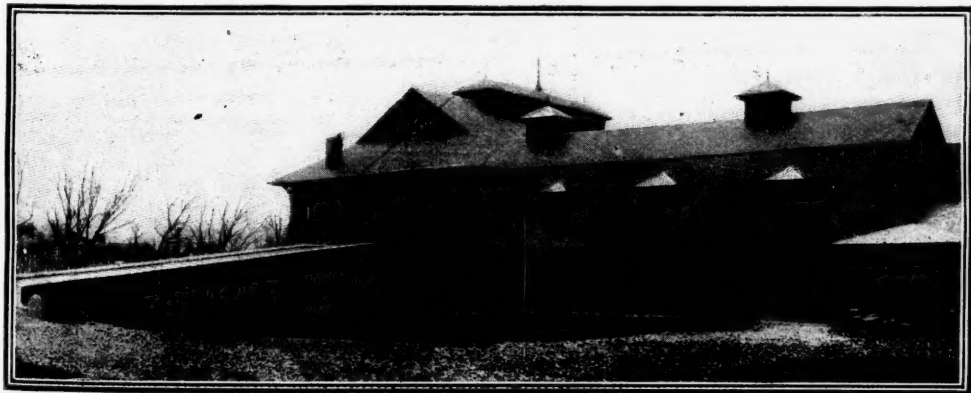
THE DAIRY BARN ON THE "SHELLBANKS" FARM.—A LARGE TRACT OWNED BY THE SCHOOL SEVERAL MILES DISTANT.

children are instructed in this school, the actual teaching being almost entirely done by colored girls, who belong to the advanced classes of the Hampton Institute, and who are expecting within a year or more to go out as teachers of colored children in the towns, villages, or country districts of Virginia and neighboring States. These pupil-teachers are receiving the finest possible training in the art of giving instruction, their work being under the direction of a great authority upon normal school methods.

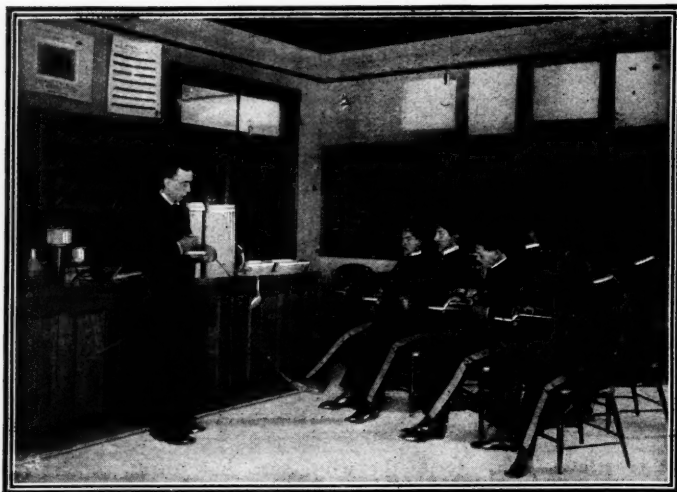
The method used in teaching arithmetic is characteristic of the way in which all subjects are taught at Hampton. It is not merely textbook or blackboard work in abstract numbers, but it is the practical arithmetic of daily life. Liquid measure is taught in connection with the practical business of the dairy, which sells milk to the great hotels of the region. Land measure is taught upon the ground itself, and the pupil does not merely read and

write the word acre, but stakes an acre out upon the actual ground. The girls learn arithmetic in connection with the measurements in dressmaking or cooking. There is a mathematical side to the work of every practical trade, and so all the problems of arithmetic, in so far as it is desirable to teach that subject, are given a practical character. Thus, the boy who learns to lay brick learns to make the necessary calculations that go with the mason's trade. Newspapers and periodicals are constantly used as furnishing facts to supply problems in arithmetic, geography, and the various other general subjects of school instruction.

The agricultural department has been especially developed during the past year in its teaching methods, and a greatly increased percentage of the Hampton pupils are now fitting themselves by careful training either to carry on farms for themselves or to act as farm managers, or as teachers of agriculture



THE NEW BARN ON THE SCHOOL GROUNDS,—REMARKABLY WELL APPPOINTED IN EVERY WAY.



A CLASS STUDYING METHODS OF CREAMING.

in other institutions. Besides the regular undergraduate course in agriculture, Hampton has also now provided for an extended post-graduate course, so that colored normal schools and institutions all over the South may be able in the future to obtain from Hampton teachers qualified to direct departments of agricultural training. Each year Hampton is more and more careful in sifting the quality of new students admitted, in order to send out graduates of exceptional ability, character, and thoroughness of training for leadership in negro education and progress wherever they may find their fields of work. Professor Bishop, at the head of the agricultural depart-

ment, makes an annual report on the methods of teaching in his lines, which would be of interest to all our readers, and from which the following is an extract:

The course in elementary theoretical agriculture which is given to every student at Hampton along with and as an important part of the academic training has been most carefully worked out to meet the needs of the students. It begins with the kindergarten children of the Whittier School and, extending through the grades there, includes nature study and school gardening. In the Academic Department at the institute each student has agriculture two periods a week for three years. No student

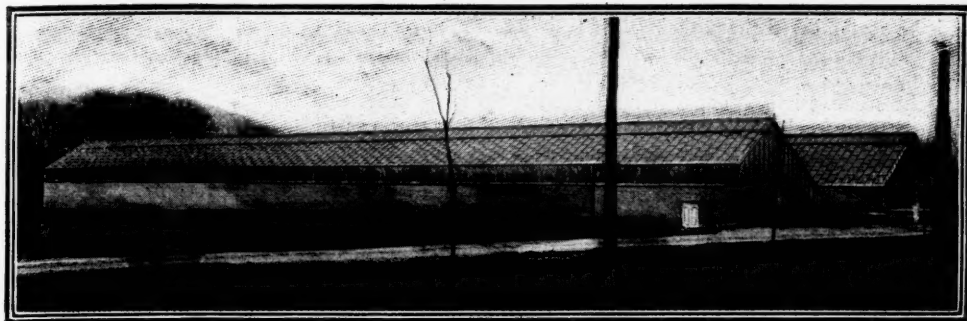
takes any course at Hampton without learning much of the best methods of handling soils, plants, and animals. In addition to this we have a graduate course of three years open only to those who have been graduated from the Academic Department or who have taken similar work elsewhere. As soon as he finishes his course the graduate student is in demand as a teacher in other schools, either to establish agricultural courses or to teach those already established. With the beginning of this year a course in undergraduate agriculture has been started by which it is planned to fit young men to go on farms and handle them intelligently and profitably.

The undergraduate course as outlined is in brief as follows:

The student works in field, garden, greenhouse, or barn from seven in the morning till three in the



LESSONS ON TILLING THE SOIL.



THE NEW GREENHOUSES.

afternoon, when he has a study period of two hours. This includes a thirty-minute recitation on agricultural subjects four days in the week and a review of the week's work out of doors with his instructor one day in the week. At night he has three periods of regular academic work, including agriculture.

In December he goes to the Trade School and takes a month of practical carpentry so as to learn the use of tools and be able to do his own repair work on the farm, build a poultry house, etc. In January he goes to the wheelwright and blacksmith shops and gets acquainted with plain repair work on wagons. In February at the paint shop he learns how to mix paints and spread them on plain work, and in the mason's department how to mix and lay a cement floor for stalls or barn, and how to lay brick in a pier or chimney. One week is spent in the harness shop, learning how to mend a harness without strings and wire, that rainy days

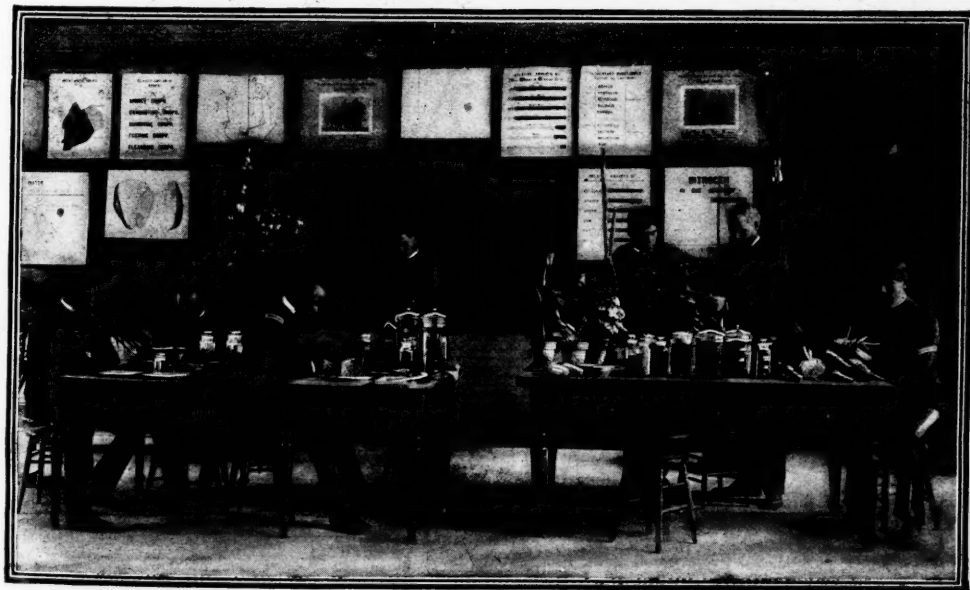
on the farm may be busy ones. Mechanical drawing is also given that he may not only read but make simple plans.

Spring work begins outside in March and the student comes back to agriculture work in the garden, continuing through the summer, learning how to plant, grow, gather, and store or prepare for market all the vegetables that can be grown at Hampton.

At the beginning of the second year he takes up further garden work: (1) the cultivation of fruits in orchards, including pruning and spraying; and (2) the handling of crops under glass—cold frame, forcing house, and greenhouse work.

The third year he will study animal husbandry, the care of stock in the dairy and horse barns and the care of poultry and bees in summer.

Every line of the above extract is a revelation in the modern methods of teaching. And



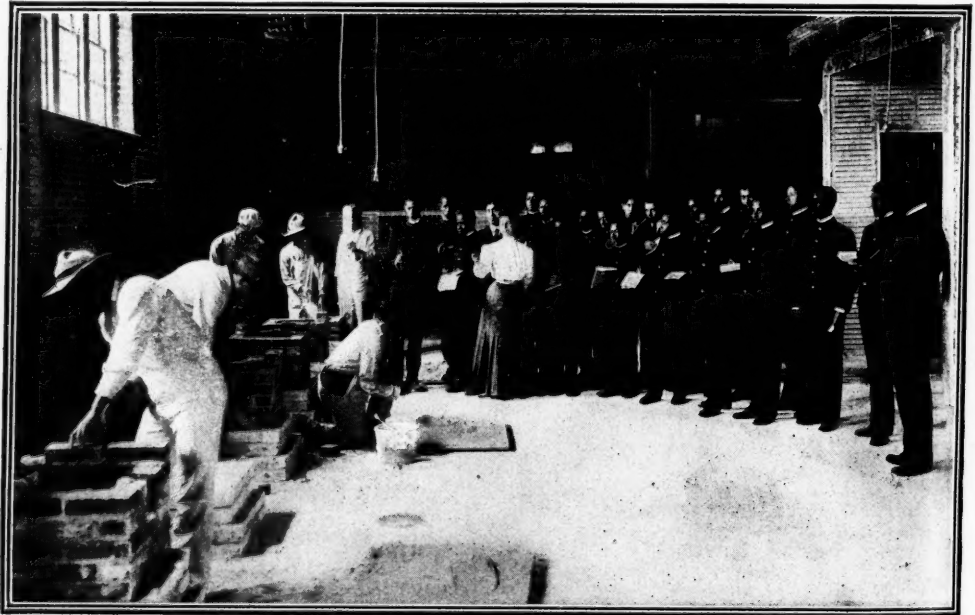
LABORATORY WORK IN AGRICULTURE.

let it be remembered that this kind of training in agriculture goes along with a well-rounded development of mental and physical traits, so that the student is graduated not merely as a young man who has been taught about farm work, but as one who has developed right views of manhood and citizenship and of duty toward one's self and one's fellow-men.

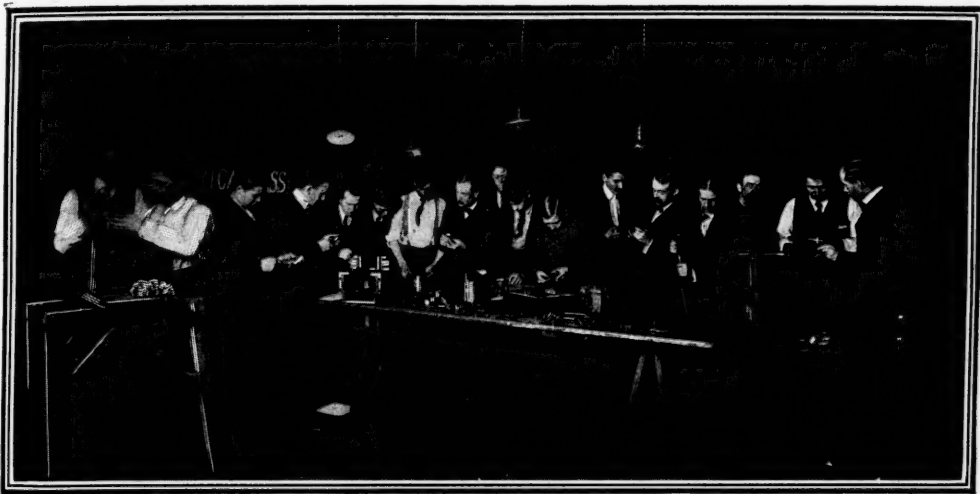
So elaborate is the work of this great institution that in this comment upon its educational methods I have not attempted to explain or describe its life and work in detail. The illustrations that accompany this article are selected as suggesting the kind of instruction and work that Hampton carries on, but it would require hundreds of such pictures to give anything like a complete record of the varied activities of the place. I have not even mentioned the interesting contingent of young Indians sent by the United States Government to share in the benefits of the Hampton life and method, for the great mass of the student body is made up of young negroes, and

Hampton's real mission is to the negro race,—unless, indeed, one takes the deeper and more philosophical view that Hampton's mission is to the white population of the South, inasmuch as the right training of the negroes is even more essential to the dominant race than to the one that holds a secondary position.

Every intelligent Southern man and woman must henceforth begin to see how closely the business of education is related to the welfare in every aspect of the whole population of the Southern States. And with this recognition there must be a closer acquaintance with the educational agencies that are doing the work. A visit to the shops and farms and school-rooms of the Hampton Institute will prove to be worth while to any one interested in the general question of education, and peculiarly instructive to those who wish to go thoroughly into the problem of training for life, as related to the great negro population of the Southern States.



CLASS IN ARITHMETIC STUDYING PROBLEM IN BRICKLAYING.



THE ELECTRICITY CLASS OF THE RAILROAD Y. M. C. A. AT TOPEKA, KANSAS.
(This class is constructing a complete electric car-lighting equipment.)

SCHOOLS FOR THE OUT-OF-SCHOOL.

BY H. V. ROSS.

CAN the man whose daylight hours are occupied by his business be profitably instructed in an evening school on the subject-matter of that business? A few years ago the suggestion would have seemed chimerical in the extreme. To-day, after the experiment has been tried, there is abundant testimony to its feasibility.

A man who has been in business for twenty-five years and is at present the auditor for a leading metropolitan newspaper was asked his opinion of the "business-economy" class conducted, as part of its evening-school work for employed men, by the West Side Young Men's Christian Association of New York City.

"I found the courses of incalculable benefit," he said, "and if I couldn't get the same instruction in any other way I wouldn't exchange it for a great deal of money. As I am a busy man, the question with me when I joined the class was not about the fee, but whether the results would repay me for my time. I was amply repaid. Most of the lecturers were experts in their lines, and while in many cases the principles enunciated were as old as business, their working out by these men was different and gave the students a new perspective. There were several practical points developed, too, that I have applied to conditions in this office with good effect, chiefly in the economy of time. But the ben-

efit to me was mostly in the broadening of my outlook. The course was excellent for showing the business man how others do things and lifting him out of his circular rut, for it seems to me that many business men go in a circle. If the Association offers as good a course next year I shall be glad to attend it again."

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

The above may be taken as a sample testimony to the practical value of a recently developed phase of educational work—the industrial and commercial classes for employed men, which now form an important part of the evening-school work of many Young Men's Christian Associations throughout the country. This movement to meet the professional, educational needs of ambitious young men, already harnessed to their life work, was begun something like five years ago, has attained to national importance, and possesses enormous possibilities of development. It has received warm commendation from men of all sorts and degrees, including captains of industry, merchant princes, university presidents, educators, and business men generally, among whom may be named John Wanamaker, David Starr Jordan, Henry N. Tift, Professor Julius Sachs, and William T. Harris, formerly United States Commissioner of Education.



CLASS IN ADVANCED CHEMISTRY AT THE BOSTON Y. M. C. A.

In scores of towns and cities the work is now going on, and many others will soon see it inaugurated. Thirty-six associations located in the principal industrial centres of Massachusetts and Rhode Island are running evening-schools, in which employed men receive business, technical, and industrial training; and, furthermore, steps have already been taken to provide vocational instruction for boot and shoe makers and workers in the woollen mills at Pittsfield, Mass. About a year ago the association in Worcester, Mass., in which city there are said to be upwards of 25,000 men employed in machine shops and factories, auspiciously instituted evening trade schools in drafting, steam engineering, automobile engineering, and other kindred subjects, and is making plans for great enlargement of the work. At about the same time the association at Reading, Pa., started evening classes in machine designing, applied mechanics, chemistry for textile workers and dyers, and the metallurgy of iron and steel. Similar work adapted to individual localities is being carried on all over the country. In the Pennsylvania coal regions night classes in the science of mining are conducted for young men employed in the mines; in Montreal and many other towns and cities are classes in telegraphy for prospective train despatchers; in Winnipeg, a class for gasoline engineers; in San Francisco and Elizabeth, N. J., classes in naval architecture; in Trenton, N. J., a class for rubber workers; in Portland, Ore., a class in forestry for men in the lumber business, another for poultry and egg dealers, and a school

for plumbers; and in Buffalo, N. Y., courses in navigation for lake seamen during the winter months. These instances show the adaptability of the movement and its rapid spread. New subjects are being added to the curriculum yearly, and the enrollment of students is growing by leaps and bounds.

In some respects no association has achieved greater success educationally than that in Boston. Its Evening Institute, which runs seven different schools in four buildings, had last year a faculty of 110 teachers and 1,522 students; and it was there that the first automobile school in America was established. The institute, now in its tenth year, has won recognition as the leading evening school in New England, and as one of the great schools of the country. But of the few associations that have displayed initiative and enterprise in providing for the educational needs of employed men, none has won more individual distinction than the West Side Y. M. C. A. of New York City. Its educational department has, in point of fact, become a popular university of business training, with enrolled students last year to the number of about 1,200. Of this total, 800 regularly attended the special vocational classes. Something like 90 per cent. of these were employed men seeking a wider knowledge in special vocations from authorities able to shed light upon their problems; the other 10 per cent. was made up of men who were glad to get special training, in some cases for business ends, in others for those of pleasure. Their average age was about twenty-seven years. In many instances

these men came from outlying towns, and a few came from distant points. Sixteen per cent. of them had college diplomas.

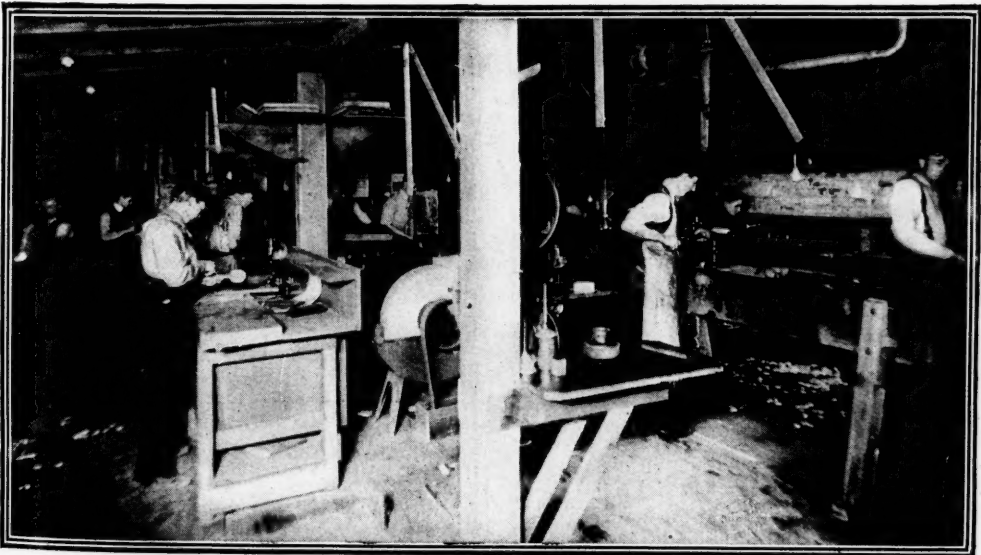
MILLIONAIRE AND OFFICE BOY TAUGHT IN THE SAME SCHOOL.

It would be hard to find such an assortment of pupils in any other educational institution in the world. Among them were financiers from Wall Street, office boys, millionaires, clerks earning \$10 a week, heads of enterprises, and presidents of companies,—men of assured place and name in the business world, and ambitious striplings, who may some time be kings in the market place. But the personnel of its students is not the only remarkable thing about the West Side school, for quite as remarkable is the faculty of more than eighty instructors. These are some of the ablest and busiest men in the various vocations, who for moderate pay, and in some cases without pay, gladly perform the duty asked of them. Most of them are college-trained, but this fact is taken into account less than their professional eminence and fitness for being the practical teachers of practical men. In every case these instructors are doers rather than theorizers. Some account of the more striking courses which they conduct will illustrate the scope and character of the work as carried on all over the continent.

SALESMEN INSTRUCTED IN DECORATIVE ART.

First in order of establishment and one of the most interesting is the school of practical art in house furnishing and decorating, which began as a class in the autumn of 1903. So far as is known, it was the first attempt made anywhere to give practical instruction in form and color harmonies, combined with a historical survey of the classic and Renaissance periods. The idea was suggested to the educational director by a salesman in one of the large stores. Forthwith the heads of prominent firms were asked if they were satisfied with the technical knowledge and equipment of their helpers. The answer came so strongly in the negative that the class in art was at once projected.

It began its career with an enrollment of forty men. It has now developed into a school enrolling more than one hundred. The courses are given under the supervision of Prof. Frank Alvah Parsons, of Columbia University and the New York School of Art, who is assisted by experts in the various lines, among them being Sir C. Purdon Clarke, head of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, and Prof. A. D. F. Hamlin, of Columbia University. Materials for illustration and experiment are supplied free by some of the best furnishing and decorating firms in the city, ranging from curtains, rugs, and costly



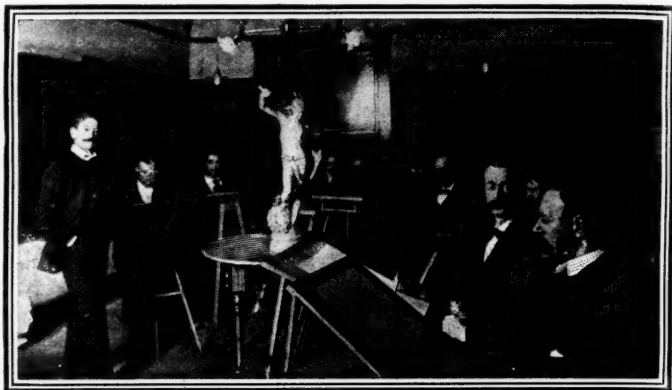
PATTERN-MAKING SHOP OPERATED IN CONNECTION WITH THE Y. M. C. A. EVENING SCHOOL AT DAYTON, OHIO.
(Twelve pupils were enrolled in this class.)

textiles, such as are used in a Fifth Avenue mansion, to the humbler fittings of the poor man's flat. Every lesson is applied in practice, whether it is the furnishing and decorating of a room, the framing and hanging of pictures, or the dressing of a shop window.

From the beginning the school of art has been in the highest possible favor. Big carpet houses and decorators have indorsed it strongly and encouraged their employees to avail themselves of its opportunities. One firm in particular has been represented in the school each year by fifteen or sixteen of its men. The members of the school, too, have become enthusiasts. One of them, who manages his own business, came regularly from New Haven three nights a week and never missed a lecture; and another, a buyer, came once a week from Pittsfield, Mass. The personnel of these classes is of high grade, consisting largely of the best type of salesmen from the leading furnishing and decorating houses of the city, besides some heads of firms and architects. Stated broadly, the purpose of the instruction is to make art connoisseurs of salesmen in decorative and house-furnishing lines and to enlarge the artistic knowledge of the people who buy from them. After taking the studies neither salesman nor purchaser can make the mistake of combining Mission furniture with Louis XV wall paper, or of expecting reds to harmonize with blues. The widespread approval of the art school denotes that it is filling a well defined want, and that it will have been the pioneer of many of its kind all over the country. It has called forth inquiries from many quarters, and has already found imitators in half a dozen different cities.

STUDYING BUSINESS ECONOMY.

Harrison S. Colburn, lately educational director at the West Side Association, woke up one morning with a bright idea. "Why," he asked himself, "can't we teach business organization and system right here in New York, the greatest business center in America?" He sought the advice of leading business economists and experts and the heads of great manufacturing plants in New York and other cities. They all urged the forming of a class in "business economy."



A CLASS IN FREE-HAND DRAWING, PORTLAND, OREGON.

It started out with a unique enrollment of forty members, whose average age was thirty-nine years. There were six presidents of companies, one vice-president, six members of firms, two superintendents, seven managers, and a miscellaneous list, including an insurance agent, a lawyer, a business systematizer, a chemist, a statistician, a bookkeeper, and a clerk. These men represented thirty different and widely dissimilar lines of business, a fact which goes to show the wide applicability of the course. The lecturers were successful business men and noted specialists. The course of study was most practical and instructive. As now developed it embraces twenty-seven lectures, under the heads of executive problems and modern office methods. In executive problems the aim is to show how to make a non-paying business pay, to make still more profitable one that is already doing fairly well, to find and stop leaks, and to apply to any business some method that has been highly fruitful in some particular business. The latest addition to the work of this class is a course in modern office methods, intended to make office men more efficient, with the consequent advancement which that implies, and to make business men in general familiar with the newest and best things in the running of an office. In connection with this course a well-equipped modern office, having the latest furniture and accessories, is used for the purpose of actually demonstrating the best office methods of to-day.

TEACHING "REAL ESTATE" IN EVENING CLASSES.

The success of the class in business economy paved the way for affording similar instruction in "real estate." For more than a year the

West Side management thought it over carefully, and organized in October, 1904, the first real-estate class in America. One hundred men at once enrolled, and the number was doubled before the end of the school year,—facts that need no commentary. Nineteenths of the men who joined were already engaged in the real-estate business. Many veteran leaders in the realty market took the course side by side with young fellows learning its A B C's. Among the students have been representatives of a score of prominent concerns, including several banks. Some of the men who rubbed elbows in the classroom with their own clerks collectively owned realty assessed at millions of dollars. These men were regularly enrolled members, anxious to compare notes with other operators and to get valuable pointers. The class has been more successful than the most sanguine of its promoters expected. Yet, when it was first proposed not a few smiled, prophesying that the teaching of such a subject could be nothing but a farce. Attendance upon one or two of the lectures opened their eyes; they found the subject mapped out like any college course, and a faculty composed of men whose names command respect among real-estate and business men generally. Most of those who came to the class to laugh remained to learn.

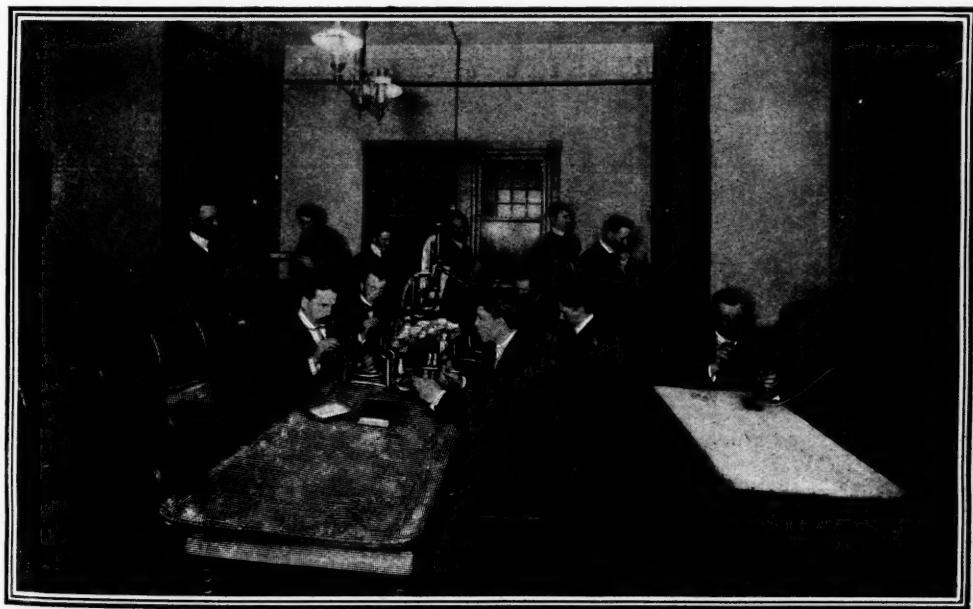
The field for real-estate instruction is a large

one. In New York City alone, for example, with its 2,000 brokerage firms, the yearly transfer of millions of dollars' worth of property engages a small army of brokers of high and low degree; but the number of adequately equipped men falls below the standard. The majority of those who take up the business do not know its rudiments. They must learn by experience in a broker's office. The process often takes years. In spite of the opinion of one well-known real-estate authority that the subject is next to unteachable, it has been amply demonstrated that its fundamental principles and much of its method can be formulated and taught.

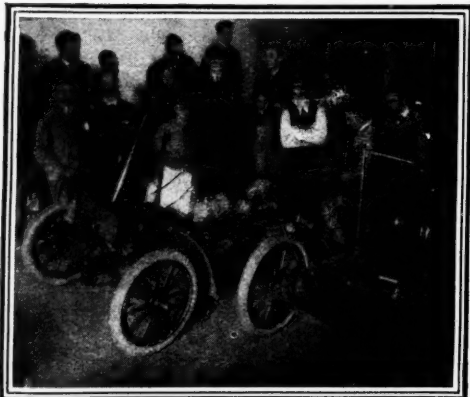
The old idea that the study of real estate is child's play and that the real-estate business is a safe harbor for failures in other walks of life is now exploded. It needs men bright, trained, and honest. The West Side vocational school has received many words of gratitude from young real-estate men, who have gone from the classroom to their duties with enlarged vision and positive inspiration. One member of last year's class doubled his income as the result of his increased knowledge.

GRADUATING AUTOMOBILISTS.

When the automobile school was started in the fall of 1904 considerable fun was poked at it by waggish individuals. The conjunction



THE MINING CLASS IN SESSION, LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA.



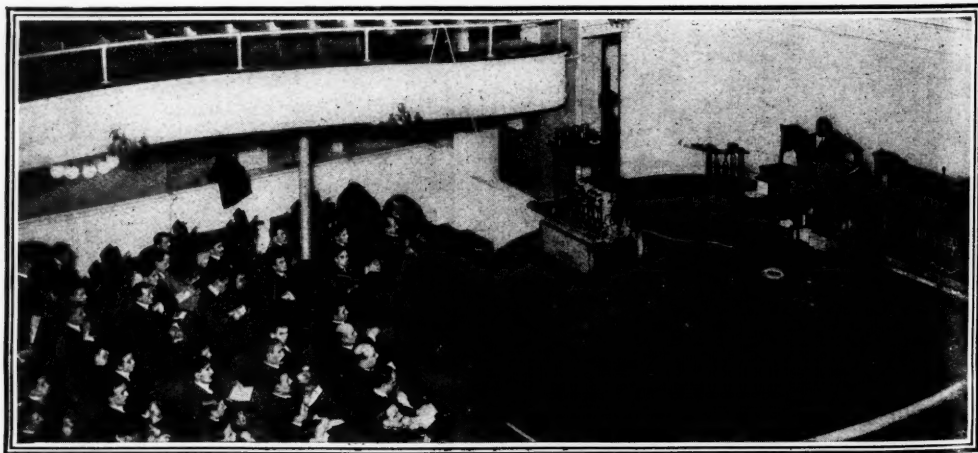
DISSECTING AN AUTOMOBILE FOR THE BENEFIT OF PUPILS IN THE NEW YORK CHAUFFEURS' TRAINING SCHOOL.

of chauffeur and Christian Association appeared to many as a ludicrous thing. Some scoffed at the idea of what seemed a presumptuous attempt to settle the chauffeur problem. Nevertheless, the project had the moral backing of many influential men. The Automobile Club of America favored the step and co-operated from the start; and its president pronounced the opening of the school a red-letter day in American automobiling. Results show that he was not mistaken. Contrary to all the prophets of evil, this school at once leaped into public notice and made astonishing progress. In its first term 136 students were enrolled, 90 per cent. of whom were qualifying for positions as chauffeurs. The other 10 per cent. were owners or prospective

owners of machines. Among the students were graduates of Harvard, Yale, and other colleges; and many were prominent men, some of them millionaires, others well known in various public capacities and as leaders in the automobile business. In all, 350 students have enrolled since the opening of the school; 81 have been graduated as certificated drivers, and nearly all of these have gone directly to positions commanding from \$75 to \$150 a month. At the present rate of turning out chauffeurs from this and other schools America will soon be able to get along without importing men from France.

WALL-STREET MEN STUDYING INVESTMENTS.

Among the latest "vocational" classes, two are decided novelties, but practical novelties, nevertheless. One is the course in investments for investors, bankers, and brokers. Leading men in these professions have given it hearty approval, among them H. K. Pomroy, president of the New York Stock Exchange, who has long held the belief that the study of investments deserves more attention than it has received in the schools. Instruction is manifestly needed in this important subject. The association course is designed to aid men in classifying securities and in distinguishing between speculation and real investments. Fortunes are lost yearly through speculation pure and simple, but the mass of people do not understand that much greater losses occur through unwise investment. How to avoid this,—that is the question asked and answered. John Moody, president of the Moody Corporation, a man with a score of years' experi-



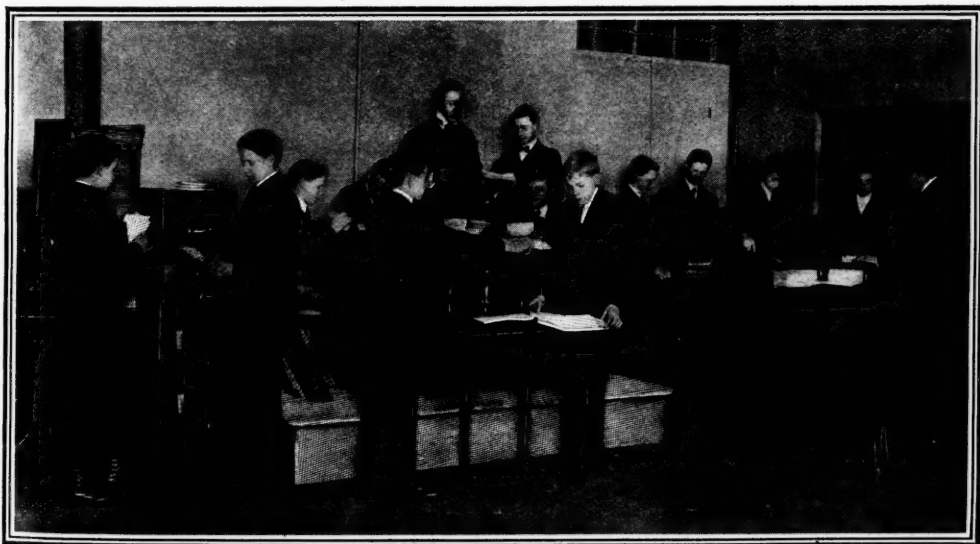
A LECTURE TO EMBRYO CHAUFFEURS AT THE WEST SIDE Y. M. C. A. OF NEW YORK CITY.

ence in financial affairs, was prevailed upon to conduct the work. In the large membership of the class, 10 were owners of seats on the New York Stock Exchange. Others came from such houses as J. P. Morgan & Co., Kuhn, Loeb & Co., the Equitable Trust Company, the Fifth Avenue Bank, Fisk & Robinson, and prominent Wall Street firms. One house sent fourteen of its employees,—officers and clerks,—and several other houses each sent four and five students. Not a few men who took the course are members of firms, capitalists, and large investors, and one man is on about twenty different directorates.

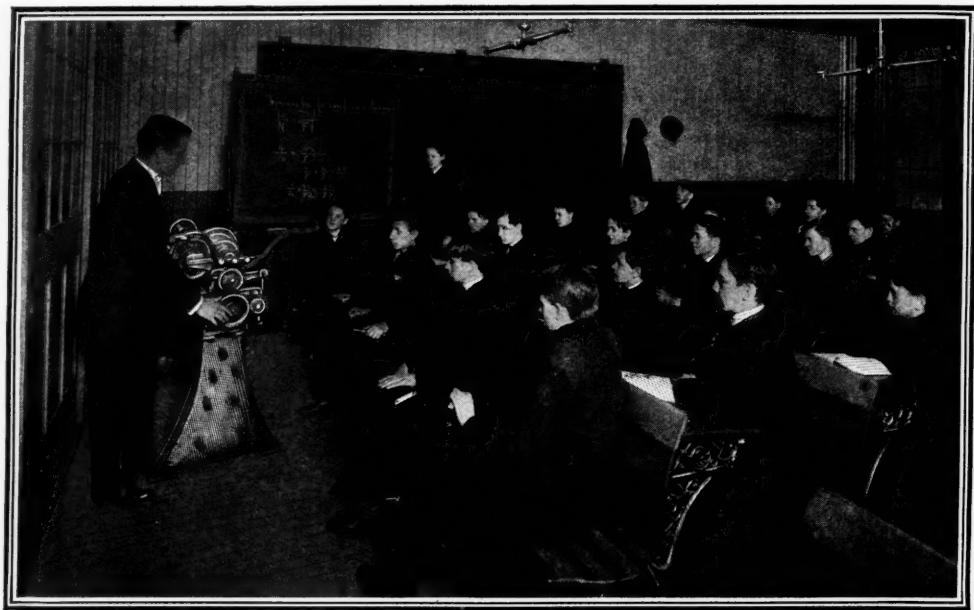
DRILL FOR THE OFFICE BOYS.

The other idea that has been put into operation recently for the first time is the three months' course of training for office boys and junior clerks. An office boy who is at once dependable, capable and civil is a jewel in a business office, and few there be of him. The trouble is that most of the boys go to positions for which they have had no special training whatever, and before they are broken into harness are a prolific source of confusion and annoyance. The boy is hardly to blame. He

has had no chance to prepare himself for his duties; and often his prior education has not made him well acquainted with the forms of courtesy and polite address. All of this can be remedied by giving him practical instruction. This is what is being attempted in the office boys' course. On the academic side he is put through his paces in business arithmetic, correspondence and commercial geography; and his use of the mother tongue is attended to with special reference to business etiquette and the omission of slang. This part of his training occupies two nights a week. A third night is devoted to the practical details of office work. By actual experience the boy is drilled in the right way of handling mail matter, letter copying, manifolding and mimeographing, filing, indexing of books and cards, answering desk calls, telephoning and other kindred duties; but he is impressed with the fact that while this knowledge is necessary to his success in the future, it is not all; of equal if not greater importance is cheerfulness and politeness. Thirty-six boys are now taking this course, and they seem to like it; it is too early yet to speak of results, but they can hardly fail to justify the experiment.



SPECIAL INSTRUCTION FOR OFFICE BOYS.



THE HOE APPRENTICE SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.
(Explaining the gearing of a lathe to a class in mechanics.)

A SUCCESSFUL FACTORY SCHOOL.

IN the times of our forefathers the boy whose parents wished him to learn one of the skilled trades "bound him out" for a term of years to a master workman, who boarded and kept him for the period of the contract, teaching him the trade and making whatever use he might of his labor, without further compensation. In the evolution of our modern industrial system the indentured apprentice has all but passed out of existence. He no longer recruits the ranks of the building trades, and in the manufacture and operation of the highly specialized machinery now required in all industrial enterprises it is difficult to secure an adequate supply of skilled labor. It is true that many American factories have installed mechanics of foreign birth and training in responsible positions, but it is humiliating to the American national spirit that native industries should not be manned by native workmen.

Some excellent trade schools have been built up in this country during recent years, each ministering to the special needs of its own constituency, but it is clearly impossible for most of them to adapt their training closely to the requirements of the modern factory. The best fitting school for factory positions, in the opinion of many factory managers, is the factory itself. Some of the leading manufacturing corporations of the country have under-

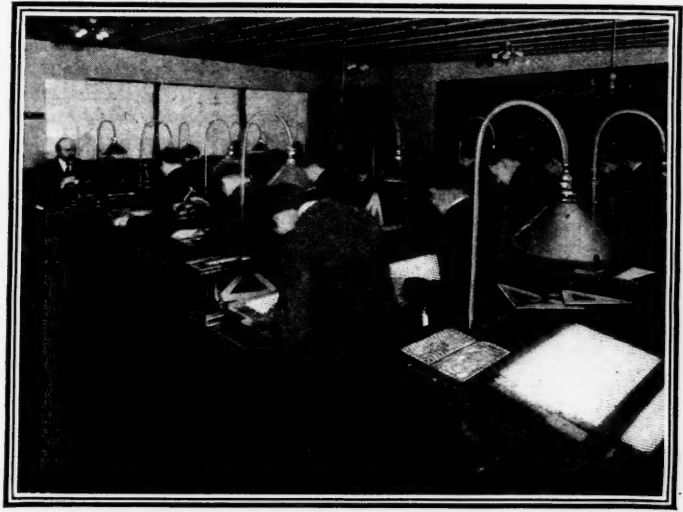
taken to provide schooling for their youthful employees. To this end a modified apprenticeship system has been evolved, under which all labor is paid and a definite amount of instruction is given.

One of the oldest systems of this kind is that in force at the works of R. Hoe & Co., the printing-press manufacturers of New York City. In that establishment from two hundred to three hundred youths between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one are regularly employed. These apprentices all enter into a legal agreement with the firm to serve a full term of five years, and this agreement is signed by the lad's parents in each case. All those who show enough proficiency in their work to give promise of further improvement are admitted to the school maintained by the firm, from October 1 to May 31, between 5 and 7 P. M. on each working day. Most of the apprentices, having come from the grammar grade in the public schools, are at first drilled in the three "R's" and English grammar, supplemented by mechanical drawing. Gradually the ability to draw up specifications for machinery is acquired. Practical instruction in the details of factory organization is imparted, and the pupils are equipped for managerial positions. The apprentices are stimulated to ask questions about their daily work, and those who show

special aptitude are permitted and encouraged to pursue their studies further, availing themselves, for instance, of the technical courses offered at Cooper Institute.

The individual members of the firm of Hoe & Co. are personally interested in the work of the school, which is directed by a head master and four teachers. Prizes are awarded each year to the boys making the best grades. The school history of every apprentice is methodically recorded from the beginning of his work, all indications of progress being specifically noted. Every opportunity is given the boy to prove his own abilities. The management keeps up systematic correspondence with parents and guardians, very much as the head of a private school would do. Many foremen, engineers, and

high-class machinists now employed throughout the country are graduates of this technical school, which was the first institution of its kind to be established by a manufacturing concern.



MECHANICAL DRAWING AT THE HOE SCHOOL.



APPRENTICE PUPILS AT FIVE O'CLOCK LUNCH.

(Every afternoon during the school year luncheon is provided by the firm at the close of working hours and just before the classes meet for study.)

EDUCATION AND REVOLUTION IN RUSSIA.

BY ALEXANDER PETRUNKÉVICH.

[Mr. Petrunkévich is an example of the high-class patriotic Russian, so many of whom are now working for national regeneration. He is the son of Ivan Petrunkévich, the well-known leader of the Constitutional Democratic party. Mr. Petrunkévich, Jr., graduated from the University of Moscow in 1897, and was for about a year an assistant in zoology at that institution. He left Russia because of the disturbances of 1899. In Germany he took his Ph.D. at Freiburg, under August Weismann, the biologist, remaining at Freiburg as privat docent until 1903. In that year he came to this country and began lecturing on biology at Harvard, continuing for three semesters. Mr. Petrunkévich married an American lady, and has made his little daughter an American citizen. Early last month he started for Russia in response to the appeal of the Duma, expecting to do organizing work for the Liberal movement. Before leaving, he prepared, at our request, the following article for REVIEW OF REVIEWS readers.—THE EDITOR.]

THE Russian Government realizes perfectly well that it is easier to oppress uneducated people than to control an enlightened people in revolt against administrative abuses. This is the reason why it has always kept the peasants,—i.e., the majority of Russians,—as far as possible from every kind of education. This policy has proved a failure, and the people become every year more civilized. Still, the government tries to continue the same course, only that it has found it necessary to break with the Duma and to assume a hypocritical pose as the true educator of Russia. To prove this is not difficult and may be interesting at the present moment, as it will make it easier for educated Americans to choose between the work of the Russian Government and that of Russia's best men.

Education in Russia is confined to three classes of institutions,—so-called lowest, middle, and highest. The "lowest," or primary schools, may be divided into three groups: (1) zemstvo schools, the greater number of which are in villages, although a good many are also maintained in cities; (2) governmental and municipal city schools, and (3) parish schools. Of these three types the best are the zemstvo-schools, and they are maintained out of a part of the taxes which each zemstvo has the right to impose upon the population in an amount not exceeding usually 7 per cent. of the government taxes, and which must also cover all expenses for zemstvo hospitals, roads, etc. The number of these schools is still far below the need, but in some districts the local zemstvos have gradually erected so many of them that no child has farther than three miles to walk, and they make every effort to provide so many schools that every child in a district may become a pupil. Usually the

school building consists of from one to three large rooms and is provided with a little library. The local liberal landowners take pride in giving to the schools yearly additions to the libraries, and often build, equip, and give to the zemstvo a whole school, under the condition that the donor should be the curator of the school.

METHODS OF THE ZEMSTVO SCHOOLS.

The course of study is from two to four years, and comprises the Russian language, arithmetic, geography, history, and the Bible. All this, with the exception sometimes of the Bible, is taught by one teacher, male or female, in the latter case often a young girl just out of a teachers' school, who is happy to give her work to the people for such small reimbursement that even American teachers seem to be rich in comparison. Once in a while they arrange an evening for the children and other pupils and their parents, and read and explain to them selections from Russian literature or history. Some schools are even rich enough to have little magic lanterns. The curator of the school also at times takes part in the reading, and as he is richer and more influential than the teachers, he provides some kind of amusement, either a Christmas tree, with little presents of useful things for the children, or a play, for which sometimes even a barn serves as theater, and in which the parts are taken by the family and friends of the curator and the pupils themselves.

The municipal and governmental schools of the cities resemble in many respects the

* When I was a pupil in a high school in Kiev it happened that a little rainwater froze in the court of the school. We youngsters found great amusement in sliding on it during the recess. As soon as the director saw us he ordered the ice to be chopped away immediately!

zemstvo schools, but as they have for curator usually some sort of official who thinks it his business to suppress too much knowledge as well as every expression of the youthful spirit,* this has often a very sad effect on the whole work. On the other hand, the parish schools are a direct attempt on the part of the government to check the rapid spread of education and the growth of the zemstvo schools. The parish schools are maintained by the government, although the latter has made several unsuccessful attempts to compel the zemstvos to pay for them. The teacher is the priest; the programme is reading, writing, a little arithmetic, and much Bible. These schools are fewer in number and often superfluous, because they are not built where there is need of a school, but where the zemstvo schools are undesirable to the government. They are very badly equipped, and the peasants do not like them and prefer to pay taxes for the maintenance of the zemstvo schools.

RIGID GOVERNMENT INSPECTION.

It seems that the government has sufficiently guarded the people and itself from "seditious" influence in the zemstvo schools. The curator and the teacher, although chosen by the zemstvo, have to be confirmed in their position by the government. A governmental school inspector may visit the school at any time and report upon it to the government. The libraries may contain only books named in the special catalogues for schools, published annually by the ministry for public instruction, or public "enlightenment," as it is officially called in Russia. From these catalogues are carefully banished all the good and interesting books printed in the cities with the permission of the governmental censorship, the pupils being thus doubly protected from "dangerous" ideas. The acquisition of a magic lantern is possible only with the consent of the governor or minister. Any literary or theatrical evening must receive each separate time a special permit, and the full programme has to be submitted. Not a mouse could run into the school without being immediately observed by the government. Yet even this is not all. Often the donator himself is not allowed to be curator of the school he has erected at his own expense, as was the case in the district ("government") of Tver, with thirty-three noblemen in as many schools. Notwithstanding all these difficulties, the population of Russia becomes every year more educated, and the number of illiterates decreases, through the work of the zemstvos,

whose deputies are, without exception, land-owners and chiefly from the nobility class. Of course, many books, pamphlets, and proclamations are distributed secretly among the peasants and teach them other things than do the expurgated school textbooks. But this kind of literature is spread among the peasants, and not in the schools, by revolutionists, and not by the members of the zemstvos.

With exception of a very few which are private, the high schools in Russian are governmental institutions. Their courses correspond exactly to those of the German schools of the same grade, and extend over a period of from six to eight years, the latter number of years and classical training being required in order to enter a university. In the high schools of all kinds (they are all comprised under the term of middle-education institutions) the influence of private citizens is reduced to a minimum, as the teacher, the inspector, and the director are all appointed, not chosen, and any appeal on irregularities has to be made to the curator of the whole district, an official of very high rank, one for five or more "governments." The rules for high-school libraries, amusements, literary evenings, etc., are in their essence the same as those for primary schools, and even the life of the pupils outside of the school is under control.

Thousands of instances could be given of the horrible injustice and brutality of the teachers,—how they play the rôle of spies, how they teach the children to become spies and persecute those unwilling to do so, and how they ruin the future of hundreds of young men. In scarcely one out of a thousand there remains a good and bright reminiscence of the time when the growing soul is most impressionable to good and bad influences. The rule of giving a record for behavior and not for scholarship only is a powerful instrument in the hands of the teacher-officials, as boys are not promoted, neither can they enter a university, if they have not a splendid record in this respect. Thus it comes that the pupils with the best records are usually the worst students in the universities, often quite impossible, while the methods of instruction, dry and dogmatic, exert a deadly influence even upon the brightest boys, and leave them so without the power of initiative, so helpless, that it is months after they enter the university before they learn how to learn, before they exchange dogmatism for analysis and criticism and throw overboard all the unnecessary ballast which hampers them.

THE INSTITUTIONS OF "HIGHER LEARNING."

The "highest" educational institutions,—*i. e.*, universities and technical and engineering colleges,—lie to a great extent out of the range of public influence. Outsiders are not allowed here, and their rôle is limited to founding fellowships, cheap dormitories with board, donations to the libraries, etc. On the other hand, the government directs appointments, expenditures, and even lecture courses, which until recently it could at any time forbid. And here again the government has done everything in its power to guard against "sedition." An extensive system of espionage has been introduced into all universities under the name of "inspection," the inspectors being a body of men dependent not upon the faculties, but upon the curator and minister of public "enlightenment." Free selection of lectures was made difficult, in order to prevent students of the natural sciences and medicine from acquiring knowledge in history, literature, and law, and *vice versa*. Even local student societies for the support of poor comrades were prohibited and thus forced to become secret and illegal. But if the programme of the government has failed even in the high schools, and reforms were found necessary in the last years, how much more signally has it failed in the case of the universities! The professors, the majority of whom are of the nobility class, early separated into Reactionaries and Liberals, and the latter did all in their power to establish unofficial relations with their students and to help them in their studies by relieving them from the payment of fees and by working together with them, often even in the evenings and on Sundays. The "seditious" temperament of the students has thus been nursed, not by their teachers, but by the daily injustice and oppression with which they met on the part of the government officials inside and outside of the universities.

HOW THE CENSOR WORKS.

Another striking example of the difference between the work of the public and that of the government for education is the public lectures and courses of lectures on different subjects and the evening courses for workmen. The lecturers are always glad to give their time for this purpose without reimbursement. They are glad to go from city to city carrying light to those who are not able to go to universities. The lecture halls of every good public

lecturer are always thronged to the top by eager listeners, and as the government forbids lectures without an admission fee, the money is collected for charitable purposes. The lecturers are even willing to undergo the nuisance of writing down the whole lecture long before the time set for it, as the government demands not only the title, but also a comprehensive digest or the full text of the lecture before allowing it. I myself, while living in Germany, was asked to give a two-hour lecture on heredity in the city of Tver, at Christmas-time, 1902, and sent a comprehensive outline of the lecture to the local authorities two months before the date announced. The lecture could not take place because of the delay in the answer on the part of the government. I received this answer in Germany in the summer of 1903, with a polite request for the full text. What a seditious subject is that of the modern discoveries in the microscopical structure of the cell and its relation to heredity!

The evening lectures for workmen, such as are now given in the largest cities of Russia, meet with still more difficulties than the public lectures. The lecturers are partly professors of universities, partly young graduates who are working to obtain an instructorship, and the subjects are many,—history, literature, languages, geography, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, etc.,—but always presented in a form comprehensible to the little-educated listeners. All this work is done *gratis*, without a moment's hesitation or murmur, often after a day's work, late in the evening. Here also the subjects of the lectures must be communicated to the authorities, and every lecturer must have the permission of the government.

I think it is clear from all this that the programme of the ministry of public "enlightenment" is to *endarken* the people, and if they do not state it directly it is because of shame and the dread of the public opinion of the world. The programme of the people themselves, to whatever class or party they may belong, is public instruction on the broadest basis, making it possible in the future for every child or grown-up person in the country to acquire whatever kind and grade of general or technical education he or she may desire and to make real "enlightenment" the foundation for the development and prosperity of the nation.



A YOUNG TEA FIELD COMING INTO LEAVING—PICKERS AT WORK.
(Dr. Charles U. Shepard's tea-gardens at Summerville, S. C.)

TEA CULTURE IN THE UNITED STATES.

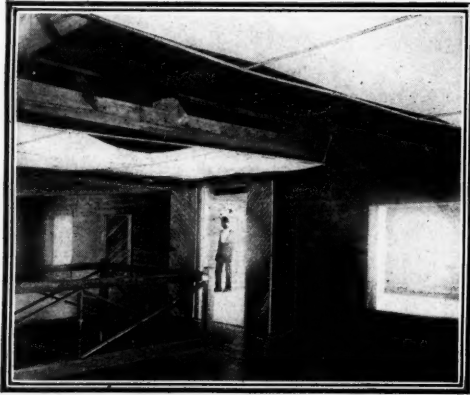
BY RODNEY H. TRUE.

(Of the United States Department of Agriculture.)

THE people of the United States, as compared with the population of England or of Russia, are generally classed by those catering to their wants as a coffee-drinking folk. However, the tea market of this country represents a very considerable commercial item, the importations of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1905, aggregating a total of 112,905,541 pounds, valued at \$18,229,310. The command of this market has been during the past ten years the objective point of a most active commercial battle between the Chinese product, formerly in general control of the situation, and that of the British Indian possessions, notably northern India and Ceylon. The English tea-planters have spent lavishly of their substance to push their campaign, raising by voluntary subscription a fortune to be spent in various kinds of advertising. As a result of this campaign for the American market, China has taken a second place after a long supremacy, and British tea-plantations now form the largest single source of our supply.

As one looks over the map of the world and notes the locations of its tea-raising parts he is struck by the wideness of their distribu-

tion, both as to their geographical separation and the variation of the conditions under which the product is grown. In some parts, notably Ceylon and Formosa, the conditions are almost tropical; and in others, as in the northern Chinese regions, they are those of the temperate zone, where the tea lies under snow for several months each year. A mere mention of the Caucasus, Natal, Japan, and the hill country of India, in sight of the Himalayas, serves to suggest the wide adaptability of the tea plant to conditions of soil and climate. A number of years ago Dr. Asa Gray made the suggestive observation that the flora of eastern Asia exhibited a striking similarity to that of the eastern United States. These and other considerations have led many an American to ask why we should not grow our own tea. In a rudimentary consideration of this question there appear to be three factors,—soil, climate, and labor. The two first being favorable, we inquire into the third, arriving ordinarily at the conclusion that American common labor is, first, more efficient, and, second, more costly than that of China, Japan, and Ceylon. Since if the United States were



DRYING LOFTS IN THE FACTORY, SHOWING CANVAS HANGERS.

to grow tea it would have to be done in the Southern States, the efficiency of the American negro is the crux of the whole labor question. He has demonstrated his ability to do hand-work with a reasonable degree of success in picking cotton, and the question with reference to tea is really one to be answered only after careful practical tests.

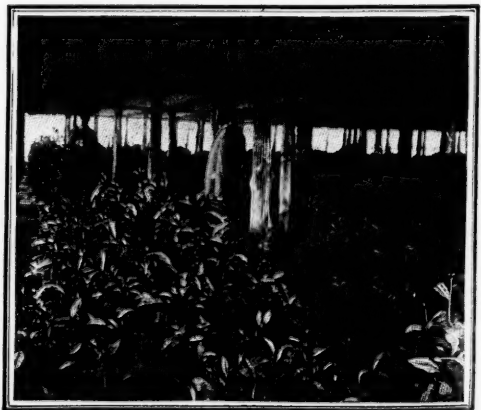
Passing over the small sporadic private experiments which have been undertaken from time to time since the colonial days, and the more pretentious governmental attempt of the eighties, we come to the most serious and sustained endeavor, a now well-advanced experiment, inaugurated privately more than ten years ago by Dr. Charles U. Shepard at Summerville, S. C., and carried on during the last seven years by co-operation between Dr. Shepard and the United States Department of Agriculture. Sufficient time has elapsed to enable us to draw certain broad conclusions as to some of the more important features of the problem.

VARIETIES THAT DO WELL IN THIS COUNTRY.

Will the tea plant prosper in the United States? As the reader may already know, tea, like lettuce or potatoes, is a general term, covering several sorts or varieties. Experiments have been carried out on a practical scale at Summerville with many of the most important sorts. A choice Chinese sort, Dragon's Pool tea, known in its own land from the celebrated garden furnishing it, has proved very successful. This is a hardy plant, of medium size, good yielding capacity, and capable of being made into excellent green and oolong teas. It averages from 250 to 300 pounds of dried tea

per acre annually. A second and very useful sort is a variety widely introduced into this country many years ago, known as Assam Hybrid. This is a larger variety, thought to have been produced by crossing the large-leaved Assam form and the Chinese. This tea, perhaps partly because it has long been in this country, grows very rapidly and produces, when at its best, as high as 500 pounds of dried tea per acre annually. The leaf has a chemical constitution differing from the Chinese variety in such a way as to make it best fitted for the making of black tea.

Another very valuable variety for this country comes from the hill country of India, and is called after the city of the region, Darjeeling. Darjeeling tea gives an average yield of 350 pounds or more per acre and has the valuable property of being convertible into a black, green, or oolong tea. Kangra tea, another valuable north Indian hill variety, and Japanese tea, characterized here by its rather scanty yield of very high quality, have given good results. With Formosa and Ceylon varieties, from high altitudes (above 6,000 feet), no convincing tests have yet been concluded. It is clear that Summerville is too cold for the Ceylon plants from lower altitudes. Since this variety is a great producer, success in growing it is much to be desired. It is clearly demonstrated that soil and climate are favorable to the luxuriant development of several of the most useful varieties of tea, and the production at Summerville fully equals and, in some cases, surpasses the production on like areas in the Orient. The raw material of a tea industry may, therefore, be produced in favorable parts of the South. The plant will



GROWING FINEST TEA UNDER SHED OF COCOA MATTING.

grow. A further experiment, now being carried on in Texas, near Wharton, by the Department of Agriculture, in co-operation with Mr. A. P. Borden, will indicate how far success at Summerville is due to local conditions. The American Tea Growing Company, a private concern, with which the department is also in co-operation, has gone into the production of tea commercially, in Colleton County, South Carolina. Its plantations have not been completely plucked, but the indications are distinctly favorable. Granting a continuance of favorable conditions in Colleton County, we shall soon have tea in a coastal situation.

**THE SOIL REQUIRED FOR TEA-GROWING—
DANGER OF TOO MUCH WATER.**

The tea shrub, for such the treatment of what would otherwise attain to the dimensions of a tree forces the plant to become, is grown in the Orient in many kinds of situations, but the typical illustration or description presents a hillside as the accepted place. This is sel-



TEA GARDEN AT SUMMERVILLE—PICKERS ON DUTY.

dom the most fertile sort of a location, and some travelers have even reported that land too poor for other crops is planted with tea bushes. Hillside plantings were made at Summerville in the early days of the experiment, but the tendency of these lands to wash and the greater fertility of the lower levels, which hold the substances washed down from the hills, induced Dr. Shepard to drain and plant lower, richer, level lands. The yield of these lower gardens has decidedly surpassed that of the hillside gardens, and the former kind of situation is not now used at Summerville.

While the low lands are richer, there is danger of too much water in the soil. The tea plant needs a well aerated, loose soil, and the loamy character is more important than extreme fertility. A good rich garden soil is good tea soil.

**AMERICAN TEA HAS A
FLAVOR OF ITS OWN.**

The relation of the soil to the finer qualities of aroma and taste in the tea has been a much-discussed topic among Oriental tea planters and



A PATCH OF YOUNG TEA-CUTTINGS, PROTECTED BY SHINGLES ON THE NORTH SIDE.

doubtless with reason. At all events, whether due to soil or climate, the tea from American gardens has a characteristic quality in the flavor. Tea experts even assert that the details of flavor vary with the individual plantation. High altitude in the warmer parts of the Orient is said to add delicacy to the flavor. It seems from the results on tea in America that the effect seen in the tropics due to altitude may to a degree be paralleled by a temperate climate in higher degrees of latitude. At all events, the Summerville product is marked by its delicacy of flavor. Some preliminary tests on the Texas product seem to indicate that in the more southern situation a tea of stronger taste is likely to result.

From present indications it appears probable that over wide areas of the South, where the lower temperature limit of the winter does not lie below about 20 degrees above zero, and where a well-distributed rainfall of about 50 inches per annum is to be expected, with plenty of sunshine, the tea plant will flourish.

DEVELOPING A LABOR SUPPLY.

We now come to the labor question, which is found, when theory has ripened into experience, to involve a number of those other questions which make the success of American tea not so simple a matter. We have not only to grow tea, but to manufacture it and sell it at a paying price. In the manufacture of tea we have to do with a complicated process, requiring judgment and accuracy in the factory workers. In the field the work of cultivation is not strikingly different from that required in some other crops. The pruning process, thus far one of hand labor, is peculiarly a tea process and must be performed annually more or less completely. It has been found possible to train intelligent negroes to perform this work with acceptable accuracy and dispatch. The prunings are not wasted, but when plowed into the soil return to it valuable chemical constituents otherwise obtainable through fertilizers. The tea leaves are everywhere hand-plucked, no practical machine having yet been devised to perform this labor. At Summerville Dr. Shepard has solved the plucking problem for himself in a most farsighted way, which, if space permitted, it would be a pleasure to describe here in full. In brief, he finds that negro children from ten to fourteen years of age can be taught to pluck tea with an accuracy and speed much exceeding the usual performance of Oriental tea pickers. In order to guide them in this direction, the children

are gathered into classes and taught by expert pickers to perform this work. When not picking tea the children are given free instruction by trained and experienced colored teachers in the common-school branches. The school-house is not a necessary adjunct of a tea plantation, perhaps, but Dr. Shepard believes that the additional training received by the children makes them better tea pickers and, incidentally, better citizens. This acts also as an inducement to the better class of negroes to secure work for their children on the tea plantation, and help of a superior grade comes and stays.

NEGRO PICKERS MORE EFFICIENT THAN ORIENTALS.

Two characteristics are required in a good tea picker. Not only must he be able to pick his full quota of leaves, but he must pick the right material. Failure to take all the young suitable leaf means that this will harden before the next picking and be lost; if "tough leaf" is taken, material is introduced that cheapens greatly the final product. It has been demonstrated that the South Carolina trained negro boy or girl can more than equal the performance of the average picker in the Orient. The average day's work of the latter is from twenty to thirty pounds of green leaf. One picker on the South Carolina force has a record of fifty pounds of tea, plucked much more finely than is done in the Orient. With the coarse plucking usual in the East, this picker would have gathered 100 pounds. The efficiency of the negro child as a tea picker has been well shown. His wages may be higher than those of the Oriental laborer, who receives perhaps only 10 cents per day, but his ability to accomplish results when properly supervised is correspondingly high.

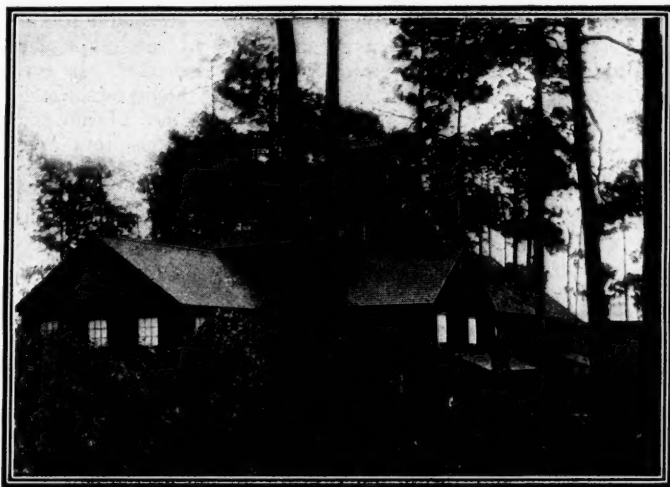
TREATING THE TEA LEAF BY MACHINERY.

Let us turn now to the problems of the factory. The leaves brought in fresh from the field are weighed and credited to the respective pickers. They then go through a series of treatments that must be at least briefly indicated if the problems with which the manufacture of tea is beset are to be understood. For the making of green tea, the fresh leaf must be promptly subjected to a high degree of heat, in order to destroy the oxidizing enzymes, a class of substances which would otherwise bring about a series of undesirable changes during the later processes.

Until recently tea leaf to be made into green

tea has been heated by somewhat primitive and laborious methods. Within the last few years the Drummond-Dean process, by which live steam is turned into a tight receptacle containing the leaves to be treated, has been largely introduced by British tea planters. By this process water is condensed among the leaves, inducing a "soppy" condition, with more or less loss of substances through the removal of this surplus moisture. Dr. Shepard has designed and put into use an apparatus which probably represents the most perfect thing for this purpose now operated. It consists of a long, slowly-revolving horizontal cylinder, through the length of which the tea leaf is advanced by a series of projecting flights. Heated air is drawn through the cylinder by means of a blower, and the leaves in their passage through the cylinder, falling through the heated air, are rendered thoroughly flabby and fit for further handling in less than half an hour. In this apparatus, not only does no surplus water accumulate on the leaf, but it is rather rendered ready for immediate rolling by the removal of a proper quantity of moisture. The leaf, now reduced by heat to a limp, moist state, is immediately put into the rolling machine. The rolling process, done formerly by hand, opens the cells of the leaf and works the juices to the surface. It also imparts to the leaf the twisted appearance characteristic of the commercial article. The rolled leaf goes next to the firing machine, where the surplus water is driven off, and the aromatic properties of the tea developed. Until the tea is nearly dry it lacks the peculiar tea-aroma, having, in fact, an odor distinctly disagreeable. After the firing process is completed the hot, dry tea is put into tight tin cans, where it is kept until graded and packed for market. In the case of oolong tea, the process varies essentially, only in a less thorough initial heating.

In making black tea, the fresh leaf, that plucked during the afternoon, is spread out on the drying-floors of the factory and left over



THE FIRST AMERICAN TEA FACTORY, AT SUMMERVILLE, S. C.

night to wilt at factory temperature. The object of this is to preserve intact the enzymes and the substances acted on by them instead of destroying them, as in the case of green tea. When properly wilted the leaves are rolled, as in the case of green tea, and spread out on clean tables in well ventilated rooms to permit oxidation to take place. In this fermentative process, through the action of oxidizing enzymes, the tannins and certain other bodies are oxidized, with the result that reddish-brown substances are formed, which give the basis for the name "black tea," by darkening the color of the product. Other substances concerned in the production of the aroma are also affected. After sufficient oxidation has taken place the tea is again rolled and fired, as just described. The fresh tea leaves of the forenoon are thus ready for the making of an excellent cup of green tea for the evening meal of the same day. The fresh leaves of the afternoon are ready for use as black tea at the mid-day meal the next day.

In addition to the processes described, some teas are further subjected to a polishing process, whereby the dull gray color seen in many imported teas is obtained without the addition of any coloring matter. Dr. Shepard has shown that by merely stirring the tea leaves the attrition of leaf on leaf will produce the desired gray hue, a result often obtained in the Orient by the introduction of foreign substances like powdered talc or other more injurious matter. The machine for accomplishing this purpose consists essentially of a long hori-

zontal cylinder, provided on the inside surface with a number of projecting ridges, which by their arrangement give the tea a continuous and progressive falling movement. In this way the tea leaves are in constant gentle friction with each other, and a hundred-pound charge of tea can be given a gray finish in less than an hour. This makes it possible to accomplish by very simple and harmless means what many Oriental tea makers seek to obtain by the treatment of their product with objectionable coloring substances.

MACHINE PROCESSES VERSUS HAND LABOR.

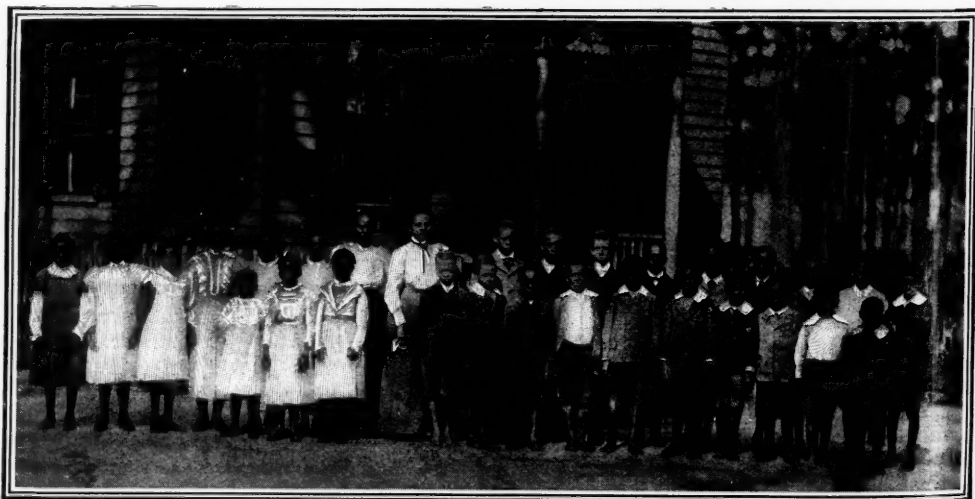
In putting tea leaf through the processes just indicated, much disagreeable personal contact is possible, and, in the Orient, is usual. In order to avoid this and to save labor, machinery is very largely employed, some of the most important pieces of which are, as we have seen, of Dr. Shepard's invention. The patents taken out on them have been turned over to the Department of Agriculture. As a result, in no part of the world is tea made with less use of hand labor than at Summerville.

After the initial cost of building and installing the necessary machines, the expense of maintenance is slight. Machinery for cutting, sifting, equalizing, weighing, and packing suffices to pack and prepare the rough product for the market and get it ready for the railroad. Thus, it will be seen that the labor problem, so far as the factory is concerned, is very much simplified.

FINDING A MARKET.

After it has been shown to be practicable to grow the tea plant successfully and econom-

ically and to manufacture tea leaves into an acceptable product, there still remains the task of getting a place for the new product on the market. In every line of trade matters move along established channels. Even though new lines of movement may be equally advantageous, they are difficult of adoption, because they are new. Any new product must literally "break into" the market. In the performance of this task American tea is now engaged. The chief necessity is that of getting the product before the people and of creating a demand for it under its own name. By any other name it not only smells as sweet, but sells much better—that is to say, by an Oriental name—but it seems a sounder policy to sell the product under its own name and connect its quality with the name of American tea. Although this creates some difficulties in the minds of the dealers, last year's crop of nearly six tons has already been largely sold, and advance orders have been placed against the output of the coming season. In order to facilitate the introduction of the product, Dr. Shepard conducts a considerable mail order business. Summerville tea grows well, manufactures well, and promises to sell well. We may therefore look hopefully for success in the experiment of the American Tea Growing Company at Tea, South Carolina, which is now ripening for the harvest, and in the governmental experiment in Texas. The annals of successful tea in this country have so far been the annals of "Pinehurst," as Dr. Shepard's estate is called. Reports from the new gardens indicate that they may soon be making similar histories of their own.



CLASS OF NEGRO BOYS AND GIRLS TRAINED BY EXPERTS IN TEA-PICKING, AND TAUGHT THE COMMON ENGLISH BRANCHES.

THE PIKE EXPLORATION CENTENNIAL.

BY CHARLES M. HARVEY.

BEGINNING on Sunday, September 23, and ending on the following Saturday, Colorado Springs, aided by the State of Colorado and the United States Government, will celebrate the centennial of Capt. Zebulon M. Pike's exploring tour, which had for one of its incidents the discovery of the mountain which bears his name. Pike's Peak is Colorado's best-known landmark. Colorado Springs is near its base. These details explain the location, and also the fact, of the celebration. The United States Government is concerned in the affair, because Pike and nearly all his men belonged to the army.

Several thousand cavalry, infantry, and artillery from the nearest army posts, many representatives of the tribes (Pawnees, Arapahoes, Comanches, Cheyennes, and others) which Pike met on his tour; cowboys from different parts of the West; all of Colorado's militia, with G. A. R. posts, societies of pioneers, veterans of the Spanish war, and other State organizations, will participate in the celebration. Military parades, Indian war dances, cowboy sports, polo, golf, and automobile tournaments, unveiling of memorials to Pike, electrical illuminations of Pike's Peak,

and displays of the State's mineralogical and other resources will be features of the exercises. An attempt will be made to present a panorama of Colorado's evolution from Pike's time

down to to-day. As mementoes of the occasion the Denver Mint is coining 100,000 souvenir medallions. The governors of all the States along Pike's route promise to be present at the celebration, and some of them are to make addresses. Vice-President Fairbanks, Secretary Taft, Speaker Cannon, Secretary Shaw, Attorney-General Moody, Senator Teller, and other notables are to be there, and some of them are to speak.

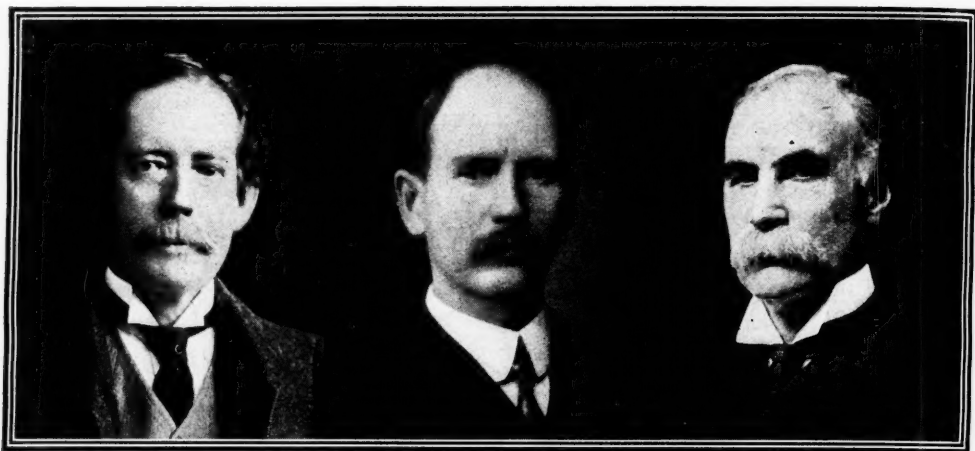
The event deserves the elaborate observance which it will receive. With one lieutenant (Wil-

kinson, son of General Wilkinson, who commanded the Western Department), three non-commissioned officers, sixteen privates, a surgeon, and an interpreter, Pike started from St. Louis on July 15, 1806, to explore the newly acquired province of Louisiana, through its central line and along its southwestern border, to supplement the work which Lewis and Clark were completing along its northern end. Incidentally, fifty-one Osages and Pawnees, who had been prisoners



GENERAL ZEBULON MONTGOMERY PIKE.

(From the original portrait painted from life by Charles Willson Peale for his museum, and now owned by the City of Philadelphia, in the Old State House, or Independence Hall.)



Gen. William J. Palmer, director-general, known as the "Father of Colorado Springs."

Gov. Jesse F. McDonald, member of the directorate of the Pike centennial celebration.

Mr. Irving Howbert, chairman of the executive committee of the Pike centennial celebration.

CITIZENS OF COLORADO ACTIVE IN THE MANAGEMENT OF THE PIKE CENTENNIAL CELEBRATION.

among the Pottawatomies, were escorted by Pike, to be delivered to their friends along the Osage River.

THE EXPEDITION OF 1806—PIKE'S PEAK DISCOVERED.

By boat Pike pushed up the Missouri to the mouth of the Osage, ascended that affluent to the Osage villages, in western Missouri, and restored the Indians to their tribe. Getting horses, he rode into Kansas, delivered the Pawnees at their home on the Republican River, near the Nebraska line, and then swung southward to the Arkansas, which was reached at the present Great Bend, close to the center of Kansas. From that point Lieutenant Wilkinson and a few privates went down the Arkansas to the Mississippi and returned home, while Pike and the rest of his men followed the Arkansas into Colorado, wandered through it in a zigzag course, and discovered the mountain with which his name is connected (not in September, the date of the celebration, but on November 16). He first thought it was a "small blue cloud," but when his party got a little nearer to it they "gave three cheers to the Mexican Mountains." Pike was in his grave many years before the peak got his name.

Searching for the Red River, which was the boundary between the United States and New Spain in that vicinity, Pike crossed the line, struck the Rio Grande instead, was captured by the Spaniards on February 26, 1807, for invading their territory, taken to Santa Fé,

and from there the Governor of New Mexico sent him to Chihuahua. From that point, escorted by the Spaniards, he made a detour through Texas, and on July 1 reached the United States post at Natchitoches, on the Red River. Six years later, in the war against England, Pike, as brigadier-general and commander at the capture of York (now Toronto), was killed at the moment of victory, and has gained immortality by giving his name not only to a mountain summit, but to many counties, towns, and streams throughout the United States.

"EXPANSION" IN PIKE'S TIME.

Pike's exploration of 1806-07 had political consequences which neither Pike nor anybody else in his day could foresee. Although he was well treated by the Spaniards, his capture by them intensified the desire of Americans, especially in the West, to drive Spain out of Mexico. Written in 1808 and published in 1810, his report pointed out the wealth of Mexico's natural resources, showed the weakness of Spain's hold on that country, and urged her expulsion by an American army if Bonaparte should seize the Spanish throne, which Bonaparte did while Pike was writing, and held it for six years. Pike's report sent Magee, Kemper, Long, and other adventurers from our side of the line over into Texas and other parts of Mexico. More important still, it incited Moses Austin to get from Ferdinand VII.'s representatives in 1820 permission to establish a colony of Americans in Texas,

which his son, Stephen F. Austin, planted there in 1822. When the Mexicans soon afterward drove Spain out the inevitable race conflict with the Americans began, which culminated in Sam Houston's victory over Santa Anna at San Jacinto in 1836, and the establishment of the Texas Republic.

By the annexation of Texas in 1845 the United States inherited Texas' boundary dispute with Mexico, and this led to the war of 1846-48, which, through conquest and purchase, placed the Stars and Stripes over the present New Mexico, Arizona (except that part below the Gila, which Gadsden bought in 1853), California, Nevada, Utah, and parts of Colorado and Wyoming, and pushed our territory in the Southwest onward to the Pacific. While the American and the Mexican commissioners were fixing up their peace pact at Guadalupe Hidalgo in the opening days of 1848, James W. Marshall made his gold discovery in the raceway of Sutter's mill, on the American fork of the Sacramento, which made California knock for admission as a State before the politicians had time to organize it as a

Territory, incited the search which led to the gold and silver strikes in Nevada, Colorado, Montana, and other parts of the West, and swung the country's center of political gravity far toward the sunset.

THE "GREAT AMERICAN DESERT" AS IT IS TO-DAY.

Pike was as far astray regarding the capabilities and the future of the region which he traversed in 1806-07 as the astutest of his contemporaries would have been had they attempted to forecast the political effects of his exploration. He compared the prairies over which he passed to the "sandy deserts of Africa," and said that this would prevent western expansion from going beyond "the borders of the Missouri and Mississippi."

Out of the territory which he touched on his route of a century ago have been built up the States of Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, Arizona (which is about to be admitted, jointly with New Mexico, under the enabling act of June, 1906), Texas, and Louisiana. Two of the States of the Pike



A NEAR VIEW OF PIKE'S PEAK.

region, Missouri and Texas combined, have more people to-day than the entire United States had a hundred years ago. One of the cities of the same tract, St. Louis, has three times as many inhabitants in 1906 as the whole of the United States' cities and towns put together had in 1806.

Across the region through which Pike crept laboriously a century ago in his keelboats and on horseback now run five transcontinental railways, which carry a traveler farther in a day than Pike went in three months, and surrounded all the time with comforts unknown in cities or anywhere else in his day. These trains pass millions of homes in Pike's "desert." They touch cities built on sites which he thought to be too poor to support anything except prairie-dog towns.

But Pike was a soldier and not an agriculturist. He was a plain, blunt man, who described conditions as he saw them in 1806, and did not attempt to tell what would come by 1856 or 1906. He could not foresee Fulton, John Stevens, or Matthias Baldwin, while Oakes Ames and Collis P. Huntington were as far beyond his vision as McCormick or

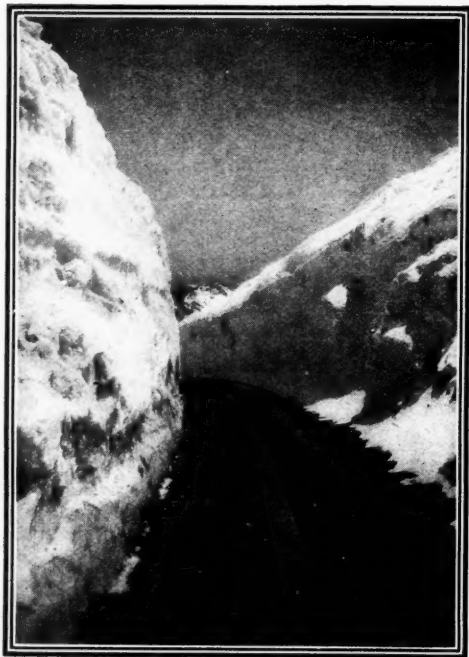
Luther Burbank. But wiser men than Pike who appeared on the scene later—Webster, Calhoun, McDuffie, and many others—had as poor an opinion as Pike had of the physical capabilities of the greater part of the trans-Mississippi country. And the ignorance of these wise men harmed the West and the nation. It delayed the settlement of the trans-Mississippi region, and prevented the country from asserting itself decisively in the Oregon dispute with England.

Colorado, the State with which Pike's name is most closely identified, held a particularly low place in his opinion, yet it has as many inhabitants to-day as the State of New York had a century ago. Near the sites of some of his camps there have arisen great cities, one of which, Denver, has nearly three times as many people in 1906 as New York City had in 1806. A dozen prosperous towns are within sight of the mountain which bears his name. That mountain which he vainly attempted to ascend to the summit, and which he said no man would ever be able to ascend, is traversed from bottom to top by tens of thousands of persons every year, including the aged and invalids, by a railway, which gives each as much comfort all the way up and down as can be found in the average home.

GOLD DISCOVERIES AND THEIR RESULTS.

Gold is the magic which started this transformation, and here again Pike's personality touches the history of Colorado and the entire mountain region closer than is commonly realized. William Green Russell in 1858 found the gold on Cherry Creek, which started that "Pike's Peak or Bust" procession of prairie schooners, stretching from the Missouri River to the mountains, which put Denver and Colorado on the map. One day in 1891, in a locality which had been trodden over by tens of thousands of hunters, trappers, soldiers, explorers, and argonauts from Pike's time onward, and which for years had been used as a pasture ground for cattle, without any one dreaming that under his feet was the richest gold field for its dimensions on the globe, except the Rand, in South Africa, Robert Womack, a cowboy, made the discovery which registered itself as Cripple Creek.

Up to September 1, 1906, Colorado has produced \$430,000,000 of gold. It has also produced \$415,000,000 of silver, \$150,000,000 of copper, \$140,000,000 of lead, and vast amounts of other minerals, the discoveries of all of which resulted from the gold finds at the outset. For the past ten years Colorado



Copyright, 1900, by F. P. Stevens.

VIEW ON THE FAMOUS PIKE'S PEAK "COG ROAD."

(The road is nine miles long and reaches the summit at the height of 14,108 feet above the sea. It is the highest railroad in the world.)



A "COG ROAD" TRAIN EN ROUTE TO THE SUMMIT.

has led California, and has furnished more gold annually than any other community in the United States.

This supremacy has been due to "Bob" Womack's discovery. In its fifteen and a half years Cripple Creek has contributed \$175,000,000 to the world's gold stock. Its \$19,000,000 output in 1905 would have paid the price which Jefferson gave Bonaparte for the twelve States comprising the Louisiana province, and would, in addition, have paid the cost of Lewis and Clark's and of Pike's exploration of that territory. Cripple Creek produced more gold in the first eight months of 1906 than the entire world did in the entire year 1806.

Here is where Pike's personality touches the particular stream of destiny that put Colorado on the world's map. While he was a prisoner among the Spaniards at Santa Fé in 1807, Pike met James Pursley, an American trapper and adventurer, whom peril from the Indians and the rigors of the wilderness drove into that town shortly before Pike reached it, and who remained there for years. "He assured me," says Pike in his journal, "that he had

found gold on La Platte, and had carried some of the virgin mineral in his shot pouch for months. He had imprudently mentioned it to the Spaniards, who had frequently solicited him to lead a detachment of cavalry to the place; but, conceiving it to be our territory, he refused."

Here, indeed, was a revelation which entitles Pursley to a place in Colorado's annals. Moreover, we can well imagine that Pike strengthened his countryman in the determination to keep his secret to himself. If Pursley had led the Spaniards to South Park, which was the part of Colorado called "La Platte" by Pike, where he had found the gold, the riches of the Pike's Peak and Cripple Creek region might possibly have gone to another race than the one which obtained them many decades later, Spain's territory onward to Nevada and California might have been prospected, her hold on it strengthened, and the later history of the United States changed.

When Colorado, a few weeks hence, is erecting its memorials to Pike, let it not forget to give some sort of recognition to James Pursley, its first argonaut.

PRINTING AND PUBLISHING: THE BAROMETER INDUSTRY.

BY W. S. ROSSITER.

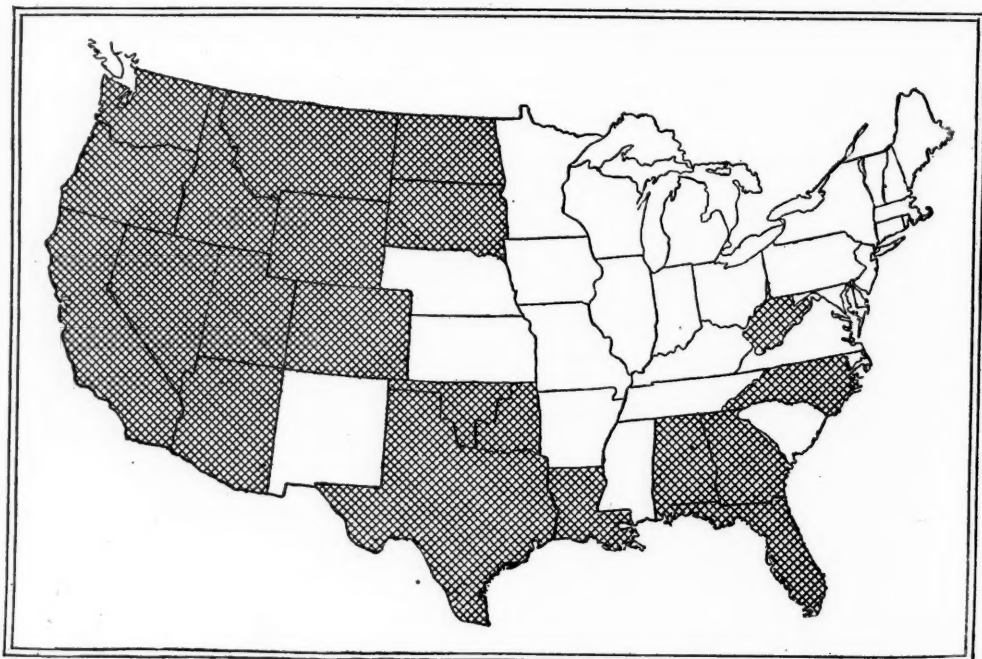
AT the census of 1900 the seven manufacturing industries reporting the greatest value of products were iron and steel; slaughtering and meat packing; foundries and machine shops; flouring and grist mills; lumber and timber; men's clothing; printing and publishing.

By the census of manufactures of 1905, the results of which are being announced from time to time by the Census Office at Washington, iron and steel has become second to slaughtering and meat packing, but the other five industries, so far as known, maintain their relative positions. The largest per cent. of increase, however, shown by any of the seven giants in this group, appears to have been contributed by printing and publishing.

This industry may be justly termed "the barometer of commercial prosperity." It differs from all other industries in that it deals with every calling and is closely identified

with the prosperity of each. A manufacturer of shoes has but an academic interest in the piano industry; but both the shoemaker and the piano man are interested in advertising and printing. There are few callings indeed in which the intelligent or the careless use of these agents does not mean the difference between success and failure.

The printing and publishing industry is thus extremely sensitive to the general prosperity or depression of the commercial world. If the country prospers, producers advertise in the newspapers and magazines in generous fashion, and the public subscribe liberally to various classes of periodicals. Moreover, as business booms, the man who has something to promote or sell prints pamphlets and circulars in immense quantities and with a degree of elegance and expenditure in proportion to his prosperity and to the buying power, as he estimates it, of the community. On the



PRINTING AND PUBLISHING: SHADED PORTION SHOWS AN INCREASE OF MORE THAN FIFTY PER CENT. IN VALUE OF PRODUCTS, 1900-1905.

other hand, if the country is passing through a period of depression, the advertiser economizes, not only because his own resources are less, but because he considers that the buying power of the public has decreased; the public cuts off subscriptions to newspapers and magazines and the purchaser of job printing argues with the printer over economies both in number of copies and method of presentation. Analysis, therefore, of the printing and publishing industry is, to a noteworthy degree, a discussion of the general commercial prosperity of the nation.

Furthermore, while many of the leading industries are localized, either being confined to some particular section of the country or else reporting but few establishments of enormous capacity, a printing office is found even in very small towns and villages, with almost as much certainty as a post office. The total number of establishments reported at the census of 1905 in this industry is much larger than the number of establishments in any other one industry, exceeding, indeed, twenty-six thousand. To find this industry a leader in percentage of increase, and reporting 43 per cent. advance in value of products in five years against 26 per cent. for the previous decade is highly gratifying, and arouses interest in the details and location of the increase.

The value of products of printing and publishing amounted in 1905 to the enormous total of approximately half a billion of dollars, and a quarter of a million salaried and wage-earning employees received compensation aggregating more than one hundred and seventy million dollars.

Of the greatest importance, however, in view of the national character of the industry, is the location of the principal increases as shown by the returns for the various States. These can best be summarized in the following table, which gives the results for the industry by the five main geographic divisions:

census, is noticeable in the printing industry, yet it does not seem to have exerted the least influence upon capital or value of products, which appear to have increased healthfully in all parts of the country. The largest percentages of increase in both of these items occurred in the southern and western divisions. How striking the increase in the Southern States has been is shown by comparisons with the results for the decade from 1890 to 1900, for which an increase in value of products of less than 16 per cent. was reported. The same group of States now reports for a five-year period an increase in value of products of almost 55 per cent., or a seven-fold increase.

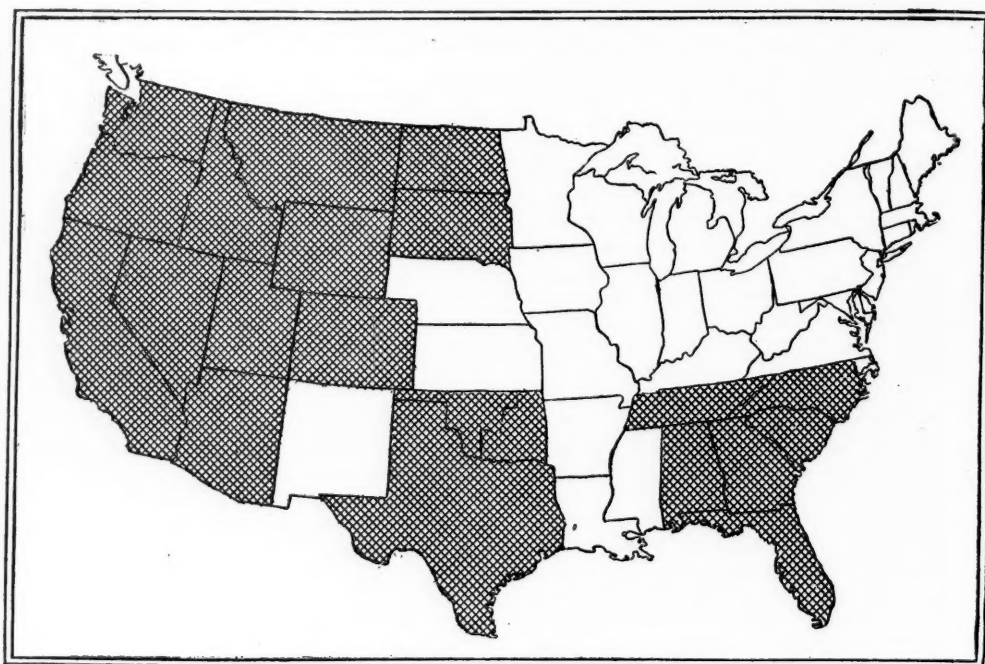
Although some sections of the country thus show more striking increase than others, there is, indeed, no discordant note in the general chorus of prosperity. Even New England, a section which neither reports nor requires an industrial boom, and which, in fact, records the smallest per cent. of increase shown in the foregoing table, has conducted her printing and publishing operations so successfully that both capital and value of products have increased approximately one-fifth in the brief period of five years. If this seemingly modest increase should be applied to all New England's vast and varied industrial activities,—aggregating nearly two billions in value of products in 1900,—the total amounts to a gigantic sum, secured by a small area in a brief period. New York, also, which in 1900 contributed 27.4 per cent. to the total value of products of printing and publishing, has exactly held her own in proportion of importance as a producer in this industry. There is no section, indeed, in which this sensitive and widely scattered industry shows signs even of faltering in its prosperous advance.

Obviously the printing and publishing industry is composed of two general parts, newspapers and periodicals, and book and job print-

GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS	Number of Establishments		Capital		Value of Products	
	1905	Per Cent. of Increase 1900 to 1905	1905	Per Cent. of Increase 1900 to 1905	1905	Per Cent. of Increase 1900 to 1905
United States.....	26,277	18.2	\$381,521,587	31.5	\$491,913,574	42.7
New England.....	1,875	5.2	34,599,087	18.9	46,248,103	18.1
Middle Atlantic.....	6,218	17.1	164,274,062	25.2	202,990,807	40.9
Southern.....	3,971	19.6	33,383,752	49.2	37,514,508	54.6
Central.....	11,671	17.1	127,184,824	36.2	170,140,560	44.2
Western.....	2,542	37.6	22,129,862	56.7	35,019,536	82.3

The small increase in the number of establishments,—in some industries converted into a decrease,—which is a characteristic of this

ing. In the larger cities and in some of the smaller ones job printing offices form a separate industry; but in the country the job



NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS: SHADED PORTION SHOWS AN INCREASE OF MORE THAN FIFTY PER CENT.
IN VALUE OF PRODUCTS, 1900-1905.

printing required by the community is generally produced by the newspaper office, which, though established primarily to publish periodicals, obtains a considerable part of its revenue from the miscellaneous printing turned out by its job office. Book and job printing thus forms an important part of the product of such establishments. The census tabulation throws into one class schedules from all distinctly book and job offices, and into another class those of all establishments publishing newspapers and periodicals, regardless of the fact that in the latter the production of job work may be an incidental source of revenue. The amount of this revenue, however, may be ascertained by subtracting from the total value of products reported for newspapers and periodicals the receipts from advertising and from subscriptions and sales, since these are segregated by the census. Upon this basis the total value of products of book and job printing at the census of 1905 amounted to approximately \$240,000,000, and the value of strictly newspaper and periodical products to approximately \$260,000,000. The value of products from advertising was approximately \$146,000,000, and the receipts from subscriptions and sales \$112,000,000.

The percentages of increase for these three classes of products were as follows:

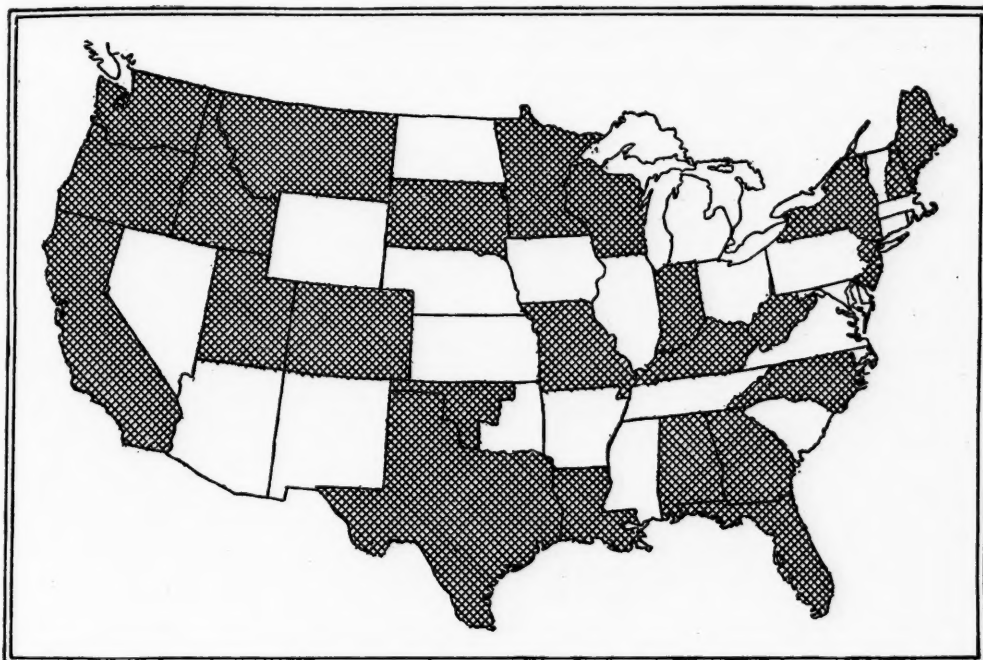
Book and job printing and other products.....	39.7
Receipts from advertising.....	51.8
Subscriptions and sales	39.3

Of these items, advertising is clearly the most sensitive to general prosperity or depression, since it is entirely dependent on the state of general business. Hence, it is especially gratifying to find advertising leading in percentage of increase.

NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS.

Geographical divisions.	Capital.		Value of products.	
	1905.	Per cent. increase 1900 to 1905.	1905.	Per cent. increase 1900 to 1905.
United States.	\$239,505,949	24.5	\$309,301,854	38.7
New England.....	20,651,338	22.9	29,311,428	25.7
Middle Atlantic.....	100,096,025	12.9	126,095,527	33.3
Southern	23,409,040	45.4	25,729,140	50.7
Central	80,222,782	32.9	103,120,851	40.0
Western	15,126,764	43.2	25,044,908	75.2

The tables above conform to census procedure, under which the value of products of newspaper and periodical establishments includes incidental job printing,—a classifica-



BOOK AND JOB: SHADED PORTION SHOWS AN INCREASE OF MORE THAN FIFTY PER CENT. IN VALUE OF PRODUCTS, 1900-1905.

tion which serves to increase the value of products of newspapers and periodicals, with a corresponding reduction in that of the book and job class.

Considering newspapers and periodicals first, as having perhaps the greatest popular interest, the results for this branch of the industry are as shown in the table on the preceding page.

It will be observed that there is a rough resemblance between the increase in capital and increase in value of products, except in the Middle Atlantic and western divisions. In the one case this may be due to a great increase in volume of product by plants already exceedingly large and perfectly equipped; in the other, to the increasing population and prosperity of communities practically new, in which plants already in existence had not previously been producing up to their capacity. Inspection of the census reports of manufactures for the various States shows that in New England only one, Rhode Island, with an insignificant product, has exceeded fifty per cent. increase in value of products in the five-year period; in the Middle Atlantic group no State has reached the fifty per cent. increase, and none in the central group except the new

States of North and South Dakota. On the other hand, among thirteen States in the southern group seven show an increase greater than fifty per cent., and in the western the entire nine States comprising the group report increases in excess of the amount mentioned. Universally heavy increases shown in the West do not possess as much significance as the less striking changes reported by the Southern or even the Eastern States, since violent fluctuations are to be expected in new communities.

Turning now to the second subdivision of the industry, the product of book and job printing, the following results appear by geographic divisions:

BOOK AND JOB PRINTING.

Geographical Division.	Capital.		Value of products.	
	1905.	Per cent. increase 1900 to 1905.	1905.	Per cent. increase 1900 to 1905.
United States ..	\$142,015,688	45.4	\$182,611,720	50.0
New England ..	13,947,749	13.4	16,936,675	7.0
Middle Atlantic ..	64,178,087	50.7	76,895,380	55.5
Southern ..	2,924,712	59.0	11,785,428	63.7
Central ..	46,962,042	42.2	67,019,709	51.2
Western ..	6,995,848	96.3	9,960,578	102.5

It is rare indeed in any discussion of the manufacturing statistics of the United States that attention is called to the prominence of the Southern States; whatever the industry under discussion, it has generally been the duty of the interpreter to point out the fact that the South was the laggard,—often, indeed, far behind the industrial column. It is clear that a change has come over that great section of the country, the significance of which apparently lies in the fact that increase of activity is not confined to one or two lines of industry, such as cotton, iron, etc. The fact that printing and publishing, which we have termed “the barometer industry,” shows such a striking advance, suggests that the spread and growth of manufacturing in the South are much greater than has been supposed.

In the three maps presented with this paper the distribution of greatest increase by States is shown graphically. First, for the total industry, and then by the subdivisions newspapers and periodicals, and book and job printing. By establishing as a standard States reporting an increase of over 50 per cent., the States showing greatest increases are clearly apparent, and the importance of the changes in the South are suggested.

It will be observed that the great States having the largest product practically do not appear upon these maps; it is the smaller and

less prominent commonwealths that are pushing to the front and claiming a large share in the great prosperity of the country.

Thus, in its totals and in many of its details, the story of the printing and publishing industry accurately reflects the results of the entire census of manufactures. The States which for a century have held preëminence in volume and variety of product are prosperous in the extreme; they have increased their plants, and on an enormous value of product have piled still greater millions; but the most striking increases both in capital and in value of product are being reported by States and communities which heretofore have not been regarded as important in connection with manufacturing enterprises. This fact suggests that hereafter manufacturing may be less localized in States or sections. The rising tide of industrial activity in all parts of the Union is evidently tending to equalize production.

In truth, it is hard to fully explain the stupendous increase,—which still continues without faltering,—of the factory product of the United States from 1900 to 1905. The results of the census of manufactures of 1905 suggest that the present period may be no mere alternation from depression to prosperity, but that the nation has come upon a mighty industrial era which shall prove to be without precedent in the history of men.

INVESTIGATING MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP AT HOME AND ABROAD.

BY EDWARD W. BEMIS.

(Superintendent of the Water Department, Cleveland, O.)

AT the beginning of this statement, made in response to the invitation of the editor of *THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, it is important to mention that the commission selected by the National Civic Federation for the investigation of municipal ownership voted, very properly, that no interviews should be given out with regard to results and conclusions, or relative to the facts obtained, until the entire report had been published. At the various public functions, and in the publications of the federation and elsewhere, however, the methods of the investigation, and the membership of the various committees taking up portions of

the work, have been disclosed. Therefore, I will here mention some of those general facts which will help to an understanding of such reports as may subsequently be made.

A committee of about one hundred well-known men from many different parts of the United States was called together in New York by the National Civic Federation last fall, and selected twenty-one of its number as a committee of investigation.

This committee consists of Melville E. Ingalls, recently head of the Big Four Railroad, as chairman; three men connected with public-service corporations, viz., Walton Clark, third

vice-president of the United Gas Improvement Company, Philadelphia; Charles L. Edgar, president of the Edison Electric & Illuminating Company of Boston; Wm. J. Clark, general manager of the foreign department of the General Electric Company; two city officials, A. E. Winchester, secretary of the City Electric Light Plant of South Norwalk, Conn., and the writer of this article, superintendent of the Cleveland, Ohio, waterworks, and six men prominently identified with labor organizations, Timothy Healy, president of the Stationary Firemen's International Brotherhood; Daniel J. Keefe, president of the National Longshoremen's Association; F. J. McNulty, president of the Electrical Workers' International Brotherhood; W. D. Mahon, president of the Street Railway Employment Association; Edward A. Moffett, formerly editor of the *Brick Layer and Mason*, the organ of the Bricklayers' Union, and J. W. Sullivan, editor of the *Clothing Trades Bulletin* and formerly an officer of the Typographical Union of New York City.

The other nine members of the Committee of Twenty-one were men who had either written on the subject from various points of view, or had acquired a reputation in the investigation of kindred lines of work. They were Dr. Albert Shaw, of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*; Dr. Talcott Williams, of the *Philadelphia Press*; Walter L. Fisher, secretary (at the time of his appointment) of the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago; H. B. Macfarland, president of the Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia; Dr. Milo R. Maltbie, secretary of the New York City Art Commission, and Professors F. J. Goodnow, of Columbia University; John H. Gray, of the Northwestern University; John R. Commons, of the University of Wisconsin, and Frank Parsons, of Boston.

Before beginning it was decided to adopt a very different method of investigation from that usually followed. In most cases a commission directs, and, through its secretaries, attempts to do most of the work itself, but the subject was too vast and the interests at stake too great for any adequate treatment on this plan. It was therefore decided that experts should be appointed to work under the direction of the committee. For electric light, two experts were chosen in engineering lines, two in accounting, and two in labor conditions. A similar group of six experts were chosen for gas, and likewise for street railways in Europe, and in this country for gas, electric light, and water.

It was found practicable to use the same group of accountants and experts in labor conditions, on all classes of plants, and to some extent in other engineering lines, while in the case of waterworks in America, only one engineer was selected, and all the American accounting was put into the hands of one of the strongest firms in the country, which has offices also in Europe.

The idea of having two experts in most cases for every plant was primarily to render possible the selection of one expert whose previous work had been chiefly or wholly with privately owned plants, and another whose work had been largely, or wholly, with municipal plants. These experts were not chosen because of any position they had previously taken on any of the subjects under investigation, for most of them had never taken any public stand on those subjects, and the views of some of them are still unknown to the commission. It was believed, however, that there would be greater confidence on the part of the people in the final results reached if two engineers or accountants who had been in the past affiliated with different points of view on labor and political conditions were able to unite in replies to the exhaustive sets of schedules which were prepared by the sub-committee of five having the work immediately in charge.

So far from hindering each other, the two men have worked nearly twice as fast in every way as one would have done alone, and they have substantially agreed thus far in almost every instance. The work of these experts was so great, however, that, although it was begun in February and March, both at home and abroad, it will not be completed, at least in America, until sometime in September.

Special reports from three members of the commission were also provided for. Professor Gray is studying American political conditions in their relation to public and private ownership; Professor Goodnow, with reference to English political conditions and their bearing upon American problems, and Dr. Maltbie, with reference to the history of legislation and regulation in Great Britain.

Two engineers were also selected to make a special report on about eight municipal and eight private electric-lighting plants in cities of somewhat similar size in Massachusetts, where the records are more complete and more under State supervision than in other American States.

In addition to this work of investigation carried on at heavy expense under the imme-

diate direction of three members of the committee of five in this country, Messrs. Goodnow, Walton Clark, and Bemis, and by the other two members in Great Britain, Messrs. Maltbie and Sullivan, it was arranged for the entire Committee of Twenty-one to visit all the plants of Great Britain and America which were selected for special investigation.

A few American plants were thus visited in the spring, and the others will be visited in the early fall. Fifteen members of the commission met in Dublin at the end of May, and between that time and July 4 visited the plants under investigation, and met some of the leading officials and citizens and the leaders in the British movements for and against municipal operation. Typical plants, usually the largest of their kind, had been selected for study. They consisted of the private street railways of Dublin and Norwich and the London United, and the municipal plants of Glasgow, Manchester, Liverpool, and of the London County Council. An effort was made without success to include the Bristol private tramways in the comparison.

In electric light and power, the private plants of New Castle and three London boroughs were compared with public undertakings in Glasgow, Manchester, Liverpool, and one of the London boroughs, St. Pancras. Likewise on gas the private works at New Castle and Sheffield, and the South Metropolitan of London were compared with those of Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, and Leicester.

In this country there are no municipal street railways to compare with private roads, and in England there are few important private waterworks to compare with those publicly owned. It was therefore decided to omit waterworks in Great Britain and street railways in America, save as there might be data already at hand furnished by the United States and British Governments, the various railway commissions, British reports, etc.

Unfortunately in this country there is not much opportunity for comparison of large municipal with large private lighting plants. The only electric light plants of this country owned by cities of 50,000 inhabitants last year were by law confined to the lighting of streets and public buildings, and there was only one public gas plant in operation by a city of over 50,000 inhabitants.

English private companies are far more ready to give information regarding their costs of operation by items, and their profits and the inventory value of their physical plants,

than are American companies, and to our commission this information has been more fully given, apparently, than had ever been done before. Everywhere the commissioners were received with most unexpected courtesy and good-will. We were conveyed to the various plants we wished to visit, and to the large industries of the city that might utilize the output of plants we were studying. At lunches and other functions we were given full opportunity to meet with directors and officers of the companies, and the aldermen, mayors, and other city officials.

No effort was made to investigate conditions on the Continent, because the funds at command were all required for the study of English and American experiments, as these are more likely to have a bearing on American problems, and are much easier studied in Great Britain than on the Continent.

The question now, of course, uppermost is, What results will follow this extensive investigation? It is too early yet to tell. In order to digest the information and present it for proper consideration to the Committee of Twenty-one, a special committee was appointed in London, consisting of Messrs. Walton Clark, Edgar, Parsons, and Bemis. The data will not all be put in the hands of the committee before the latter part of September, and cannot well be put into shape for the criticism of the full commission for some time.

Another special committee, consisting of Messrs. Ingalls, Shaw, and Moffett, has been given the important duty of preparing some general recommendations and conclusions, which naturally will have to wait on the summaries of the other committee.

Great credit is due to the National Civic Federation for initiating such a method of investigation, and for seeing to it that there were enough members on the commission of different points of view, and familiar with scientific methods of investigation, to secure as full a treatment of the subject as the money at hand, by no means small in amount, could be reasonably expected to secure. Only the resources of a government itself, or funds mounting into the hundreds of thousands of dollars, could as fully survey the field as it would be desirable to do. It is the commission's belief, however, that enough data will be presented to throw much light upon the problem, which is daily assuming such importance in America, and that its report will also be welcomed by all shades of thought in England, and will everywhere advance the cause of good government.

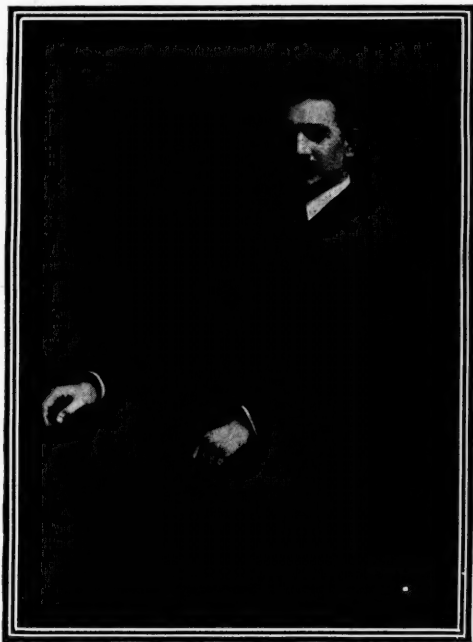
LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

SHOULD THE SHERMAN LAW BE AMENDED?

THE demand for amendment of the Sherman anti-trust law is based on the failure of the law as it stands to discriminate between trade agreements which are clearly injurious to the public welfare and those which are not injurious. This distribution is emphasized in an article contributed to the *North American Review* for August by the Hon. Charles G. Dawes, formerly Controller of Currency. This, says Mr. Dawes, is the day of the trade agreement. All over the country in different lines of business associations are being formed for mutual protection and for the arranging of what may be termed the rules of trade. Certain agreements in restraint of trade really act to keep alive competition and are formed for the purpose of keeping it alive.

Those who support these organizations believe that most of the evils in our business life are the outgrowth of unrestraint and unregulated competition. An agreement among competitors not to sell below cost may in some instances, as Mr. Dawes points out, be of public benefit. At any rate, Mr. Dawes contends that a trade agreement, whether it relates to prices or otherwise, is not of necessity criminal; that it may have either a good or a bad purpose; that it may simply preserve private rights and privileges of trade not detrimental to the public, and that therefore the Sherman anti-trust law should not make criminal, as it now does, all agreements in restraint of trade. In his view, it should no more assume that a trade agreement is criminal than that any individual is guilty before trial. On the other hand, public policy, he holds, should encourage any contract in restraint of trade which has for its object the maintenance of high standards in manufacturing products, the abolition of deception in sales, or the prevention of undue collections of perishable merchandise—like meats and fruits—at points where the demand cannot possibly equal the supply. Any contract, having for its purpose the extortion of an unreasonable price, should be discounted. The objections which Mr. Dawes urges to the law as it stands at present are summarized in the following paragraphs:

(1) As its principal section makes criminal, without further definition, an agreement in re-



HON. CHARLES G. DAWES, OF CHICAGO.

straint of trade, it leaves to judicial determination the definition of the crime, and it has not yet been defined, but will only be defined as each case arises. The business community is therefore left in doubt as to what may constitute a crime under the law.

(2) It makes no distinction between those agreements in restraint of trade which are beneficial to the public and those which are detrimental. An agreement among competitors, for instance, to sell only pure, as distinguished from adulterated, goods is presumably as criminal under its provisions as one designed solely to extort unreasonable prices.

(3) Being indefinite in its definition of the crime and introducing into business an element of doubt and uncertainty as to trade agreements, it operates to the disadvantage of the scrupulous business man and in favor of the unscrupulous business man.

(4) The fact that trade agreements beneficial to the public, as well as those which are injurious, may alike be criminal under its provisions discourages the formation of good trade agreements and encourages the formation of evil ones. The first, because scrupulous men desire to take no risks with the law; the second, because to un-

scrupulous men the risk of prosecution is less, since to include under any law good and bad acts as equally criminal inevitably discourages its enforcement.

(5) The general prosecution of our leading business men for that which may not be inherently criminal or opposed to public policy, which this law makes possible, would tend to have one of two results—it might lead them either to sell out their business as a whole to men willing to take risks with the law, which would be a public injury, or it might lead them to subdivide their business and sell it out to smaller concerns, thus lessening the economies of production and distribution, which would be a step backward in our commercial evolution and a public injury.

(6) The enforcement of this law, giving, necessarily, through its general terms, such wide latitude and discretion to executive officers in their right to proceed against corporations and individuals, is bound to create the appearance at least of favoritism in its application, and to result in lack of uniformity in the treatment of cases arising under it.

The condition to which reference is made in the last paragraph was illustrated in the recent cases against the packers, when an effort was made by the government to hold them criminally liable. In this instance, as Mr. Dawes

looks at the matter, the government found itself in the attitude of announcing through one department, after a thorough investigation, that the business was not a monopoly and that the profits were reasonable, and seeking at the same time through another department to put its owners in jail as public malefactors.

Again, in such situations as that presented by the Northern Securities case, Mr. Dawes holds that the law as it stands is inadequate. Such a law, in his opinion, should provide for the determination, first, as to whether or not, as a matter of fact, the consolidation of two railroads would work harm or benefit to the people affected. Then, if it were decided to be harmful, the remedy should be in the nature of an effort to restore the former conditions of competition. If, on the other hand, it should be found to be not injurious, the government should, under the law, sanction it. As things are now, uniformity of action is not to be expected under a law which includes in its general condemnation that which is inherently innocent as well as that which is inherently guilty.

HOW TEXAS REGULATES HER RAILROADS.

THERE is at least one State in this Union which for some years has fixed the rates charged by its railroads and has regulated those corporations to an extent unheard of in other parts of the country. After fifteen years of regulation by a railroad commission the State of Texas finds its railroad mileage increasing so rapidly that labor cannot be found to supply the demand for railroad-building, while the income to the roads themselves has more than doubled. Just how all this has come about is set forth in an interesting article contributed to the August *Reader* (Indianapolis) by Ethel Hutson. The propositions upon which the Texans have based their railroad-commission law are stated by this writer as follows:

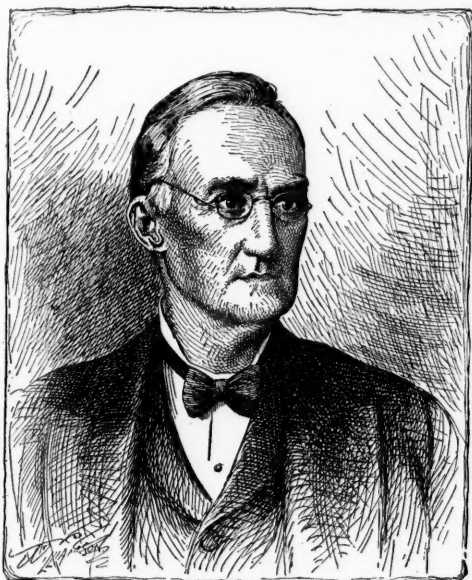
1. A corporation is the creature of the State; it has, therefore, no natural *rights* as a person has, but only such *privileges* as the State may give it.

2. It is created to *serve* the people; if, instead, it becomes strong and insolent, and oppresses them, it should be destroyed, not by violence and anarchy, but by the legal action of the State which created it and can revoke its charter.

3. The power which creates and which may destroy may also limit; and so the State may, and should, control corporate activity as the welfare of the people demands, subject only to the constitutional limitations which forbid *confiscation* or *destruction of property*.

The effective expression of these propositions in statute law and the practical enforcement of that law are accredited by common consent to the late ex-Governor James S. Hogg and to ex-Senator John H. Reagan, who was the first chairman of the Texas Railroad Commission.

When the commission, under Judge Reagan's chairmanship, began to deal with the rate problem, it found, in the language of its first report, "a system of freight rates adopted by the railroad companies composed, in part, of mileage rates for short distances, and for longer distances of 'blanket' or 'common-point' rates," and also found the rates within the State much higher per mile than corresponding rates in other States. In attempting to equalize these inequalities and not at the same time endanger commercial stability, the commission was compelled to make cautious changes. On the ground that many of the roads were carrying freight at less than the published rates, it lowered a number of rates, but kept the rates, as a rule, higher than the interstate tariff and higher than rates in other States. It was conceded that in justice to the railroads the rates in a sparsely settled country must be higher than in a country already settled up and de-



HON. L. S. STORY.

(Chairman of the Texas Railroad Commission.)

veloped; but in many instances the roads themselves requested reductions, in order to stimulate production within the State and thus eventually to increase the traffic of the railroads and their revenues.

FOSTERING TEXAS INDUSTRIES.

On the whole, however, since the Texas business was less profitable than interstate business, the railroads had cultivated the latter and rather discouraged the former. But the railroad commission "saw no good reason why Texas should be supplied with flour, meal, and salt from Kansas and Missouri when she could produce salt and corn and wheat and prepare them within her borders; nor why cotton seed should be shipped out of the State to be made into oil and cake; nor why the lumber and lime and clay of Texas should not build Texas homes." The commission argued that if Texas products were to be more nearly of an equality with the products of other States the railroads themselves would profit in the end by the stimulus to small industries along their lines. Therefore, the commission reduced the rates on grain, cotton, lime, lumber, live stock, and a few other products of large bulk and tonnage. The railroads, however, took a different view of the matter and applied to the federal courts to enjoin the commission from enforcing its rates, on grounds of the

unconstitutionality of the law and the unreasonableness of the rates actually made by the commission. After nearly two years of litigation the Supreme Court of the United States decided that the State had the power to make rates through a commission appointed for that purpose. The commission had waived the second question of the reasonableness of its rates, in order to insure a speedy decision on the constitutionality of the law. During the fifteen months when the commission-made rates were suspended pending the decision of the case, the people of Texas had an opportunity to see by contrast the advantages of the commission idea. During this period the State's shipping and manufacturing interests were seriously depressed.

In order to prevent the fraudulent issue of stocks and bonds by railroads, a law was passed providing that no bonds or other indebtedness should be issued over and above the reasonable value of the property on which it is issued. The law further provides that the railroad commission shall value each railroad in the State, including all its franchises, appurtenances, and property, and, after giving the railroad an opportunity to protest against this valuation if too high or too low, shall file its report with the Secretary of State, where it shall remain as a public record as a limitation for the issuance of indebtedness. Any road issuing stocks or bonds not in accordance with this law forfeits its charter.

Rebates are prevented in Texas by the section of the railroad law which levies a heavy fine upon the railroad that gives a rebate, but does not punish the shipper who receives it. This leaves the shipper free to testify.

It is stated that during the fourteen years of commission rule in Texas there have been but two or three roads placed in receivers' hands, and that revenues have increased, while rates have been reduced, because there is now no leakage in rebates.

According to the statement of a Texas shipper who originally opposed the law, but now endorses it, "the smallest shipper and the smallest manufacturer are able to obtain the same rates as the largest shipper and the largest manufacturer. Therefore, the commercial and manufacturing institutions of Texas are in the hands of a great number of small dealers and small manufacturers, instead of in the hands of a few."

In order to keep the commission "out of politics," Governor Hogg once proposed that each member should be ineligible to any office in the State for two years after his term expired.

HOW PRUSSIAN SCHOOLS GIVE RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

WHILE England and France are attempting to eliminate the sectarian (not to say religious) idea from their scholastic programme, Prussia is accentuating the religious note in her schools. This fact is interesting, not only because it is in opposition to the current of thought predominating, or tending to predominate, in the rest of Occidental Europe, but because it is generally conceded that the methods used in Prussian primary schools are superior to those in use elsewhere. However strong the organization of the Prussian primary schools may be, they are always (according to a writer in the *République Française*, Paris) a presentation of the principle that education is salutary only as long as it is associated with the ruling idea of active religious morality. More than that, he continues, the Prussian school does not confine itself to a certain amount of religious instruction given at certain hours,—instruction embracing the most essential features of the Old and the New Testaments, the history of the Reformation and of the development of the evangelical state, Luther's catechism, and a word-for-word recitation of Bible texts. All that would be considered too much in the majority of countries, but in Prussia the whole system of education is impregnated with the religious spirit in its fullest expansion and in all its degrees.

In the evangelical schools the teachers impress it upon the minds of their pupils that to teach religion is an integral part of the duty of the school-teacher. Before a teacher is qualified for school-teaching he must profess some form of religion. Children belonging to families preferring the religion of the State attend the evangelical schools. Catholics and Jews are separated; the Jew has his own school, and the Catholic has his. The teachers are either Catholics, Jews, or Protestants, as the case may require. In some parts of the country,—notably in western Prussia and the province of Nassau,—there are mixed schools (Catholic and evangelical), in charge of equal numbers of Catholic and Protestants. There are no special favors for the children of the Protestants dissenting from the accepted form of Protestantism. If a man rejects the established church he is not given special teachers for his children. All Protestants attend the evangelical schools. A new law just passed, by the efforts of Conservatives and National Liberals, emphasizes the religious character of the schools, but it takes great care to protect all the little religious minorities. In schools where twelve of the children belong to any particular religious confession,—Protestant, Catholic, or Jewish,—differing from the religious confession of the majority, the minority has a right to a separate religious instruction,—instruction in its own religion. The new law continues the prior custom and ignores the dissenting Protestants, classing them with all the believers of the evangelical con-

fession; and as the essential belief of all the differing Protestant bodies is very approximately similar there is little or no friction, no war to the death, nothing like the bitterness between radically differing confessions.

The communes pay the expenses of the primary schools. The direction or superintendence of the schools is intrusted to a special bureau, called the School Committee, answerable to the Minister of Public Instruction. It is composed of members of the parish council, of a council appointed by the Mayor, and of elected members of the Communal Council, who select a certain number of colleagues among people of competent educational equipment. Each council contains a Protestant pastor, a Catholic priest, and (if there are more than twenty Jewish children in the school) a rabbi. Each school is under the surveillance of three very active district inspectors, who have a right to be present at all the meetings of the school. In some districts several of the members are women.

Such are the outlines of the law just passed to cover the primary schools of Prussia,—passed, we may say, in a spirit essentially differing from that animating the English, French, and Belgians. Considerable opposition to the law has been made by the Radicals of the Landtag, but it will be a long time before there can be any real change of method in running the schools or in the expression of the Prussian clerical conception of the basis of all instruction. "The Fear of God Is the Beginning of Wisdom." A good many protestations have been made by the Socialists, but the nation has paid little attention to them, and in no event could they have any immediate result.

Taken all in all, says this writer, in conclusion, however clear it is to the people that the government is inflexibly determined to impress primary instruction with a religious character, the general feeling is strongly in favor of things just as they are, because, no matter what a man's religious prejudices are, they have the sanction and the affirmation of the Kaiser and his government.

It is a sort of family matter. It is not a question of furnishing a weapon to a young man imbued with the sense of his own power; it is a question of the state of mind of the whole nation. It has been said that Germany follows where the Kaiser leads,—well, so she does, but, as she is in sympathy with him (Socialists excepted), it does not cost her anything.

Parliament and Sectarian Schools.

The education bill recently accepted by the Prussian Landtag is declared by Theodor Barth, the editor of the *Berlin Nation*, to be quite as reactionary as the proposition which,

in the early nineties, excited the indignant opposition of the culture and liberalism of Prussia, and was overwhelmed by the determined protest of the universities. In a signed article in his paper, under the title, "All's ill that ends ill" (*Ende schlecht, alles schlecht*), the distinguished journalist draws from this act of the Landtag a moral of far-reaching conclusions, the essential nature of that body, which, he declares, must be radically altered. Dr. Barth is very severe on what he calls the bureaucratic trend of the Landtag. His article is, in part, as follows:

We cannot gather figs from thistles. We cannot expect from a Parliament of the privileged legislation which will do justice to the interests of the people. The Prussian parliament of three classes is a diet wherein the economic parasites of the state have the mastery, and the maintenance of this mastery is possible only by the exercise of the grossest injustice. The Prussian parliament of three classes is one of the most immoral institutions of national life to be found upon our globe, and it grows increasingly so with every year. For with every year the incongruity between national performance and national privileges becomes greater; with every year the significance of those strata of the population which are partly not represented at all in the Prussian Chamber of Deputies, partly very inadequately so, increases as compared to those wielders of traditional power whose cultural value is, absolutely as well as relatively, steadily sinking. With every year, too, therefore,



DR. THEODOR BARTH.
(Editor of the Berlin *Nation*.)

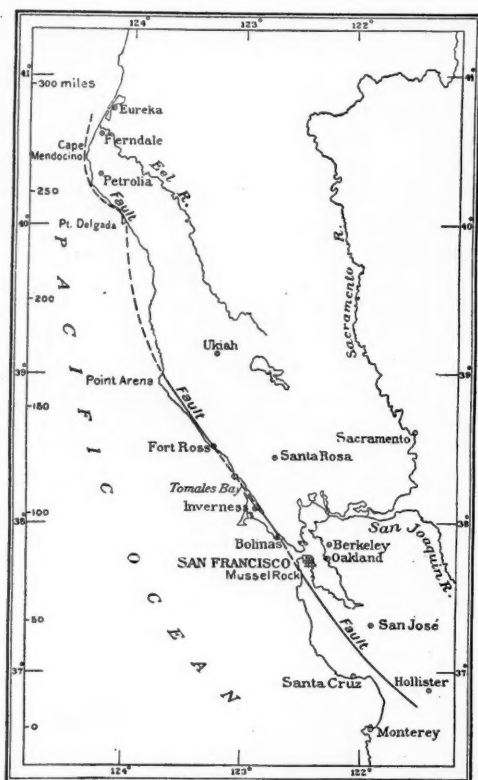
the surface which this Parliament of three classes bares to criticism becomes broader.

THE CAUSE OF THE SAN FRANCISCO EARTHQUAKE.

MUCH has been written and published concerning the general character of the California earthquake of April 18 last. President Jordan's explanation of the havoc wrought at Stanford University was summarized in the June number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, on page 709. It is well understood, as President Jordan and others have pointed out, that the San Francisco earthquake was caused by a new slip on the plane of an old "fault," which had been recognized for a long distance in California. In the August number of the *Popular Science Monthly*, Mr. G. K. Gilbert, of the United States Geological Survey, contributes the results of a scientific investigation of the earthquake, made under the auspices of the Geological Survey and the California Earthquake Investigation Commission.

Mr. Gilbert points out that there is associated with this California "fault" a belt of peculiar topography, differing from the ordinary topographic expression of the country, in that many of its features are directly due to dislocation, instead of being the product of

erosion by rains and streams. For example, this belt is characterized by the frequent occurrence of long lines of very straight cliffs, as well as by the occurrence of ponds or lakes in straight rows. The tendency of erosion, on the other hand, is to break up such cliffs into a series of spurs and valleys, and to obliterate the lakes by cutting down their outlets or filling their basins with sediment. This "fault" line of straight cliffs and straight rows of lakes had been recognized by California geologists for a distance of several hundred miles. After the earthquake of April 18, geologists began to explore this line for evidence of new "faulting," and such evidence was by no means lacking. The accompanying map represents the line along which the recent change occurred. From a point a few miles southwest of Hollister it runs northwestward in a series of valleys below low mountain ridges to the Mussel Rock, ten miles south of the Golden Gate; thence northwestward and northward it follows the general coast line, alternately traversing land and



MAP SHOWING THE POSITION OF THE "FAULT" WHICH CAUSED THE EARTHQUAKE.

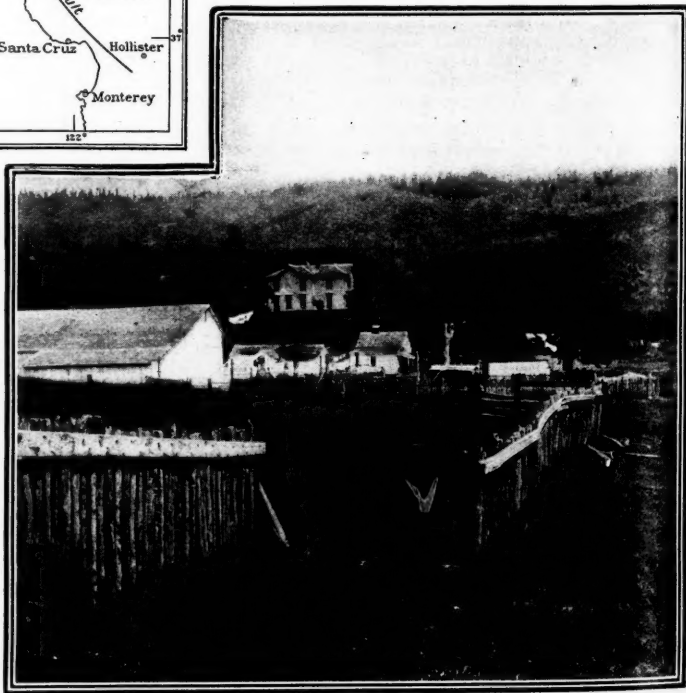
water. The farthest point as yet definitely located is at Point Delgada, but Mr. Gilbert thinks that the intensity of the shock at the towns of Petrolia and Ferndale probably indicates the close proximity of the "fault" and warrants the statement that its full length is not less than three hundred miles.

Along this line there was a differential movement and permanent displacement of the rock and earth on two sides of a vertical crack. The principal displacement was not vertical, but

horizontal. As explained by Mr. Gilbert, if one thinks of the land to the east of the crack as stationary, then the change may be described as a northward movement of the land west of the crack; if the land to the west be thought of as stationary, then the land to the eastward moved toward the south. It is probable that both cracks shared in the movement, the eastern shifting toward the south and the western toward the north.

REMARKABLE TRACES OF THE CALIFORNIA "FAULT."

Wherever a fence, road, row of trees, or other artificial feature following a straight line was intersected by the "fault," its separated parts were offset, and an opportunity thus afforded for measuring the amount of change. Mr. Gilbert states that the measurements ranged in the main from six to fifteen feet and had an average of about ten feet. At one place a road was offset twenty feet, but in this case the underlying ground was wet alluvium, and part of this movement may have been due to



FENCE, PREVIOUSLY CONTINUOUS AND STRAIGHT, BROKEN AND PARTED BY THE EARTHQUAKE "FAULT."

(The offset, as shown in the picture, is $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The line of fault, concealed by the grass, crosses the ground from left to right, touching both dis severed ends of the fence.)

the flowing of the soft material. It seems that there was also some vertical change, but Mr. Gilbert states that this was not everywhere in the same direction and that its amount was comparatively small. At many points the land west of the "fault" appears to have risen one or two feet, as compared with the land to the east.

SAN FRANCISCO BENEFITS BY EARTHQUAKE STUDIES.

It is probable that the various earthquake studies now being prosecuted in California will have important practical results, leading, it is to be hoped, to the construction of safer buildings in all parts of the country especially liable to earthquakes. In the city of San Francisco the underlying formations include several dis-

tinctive types. A study is now being made of the relations of the several formations to earthquake injury. As the result of this a map of the city will be made, showing the relation of the isoseismals, or lines marking grades of intensity, to tracts of solid rock, to tracts of dune sand in its natural position, to upland hollows partially filled by grading, and to old swamps, lagoons, and tidal marshes that have been converted into dry land by artificial deposits. Such a map would show future builders in what areas exceptional precautions should be taken. It is also hoped that some light can be thrown by the researches of this commission on San Francisco's earthquake outlook. At any rate, the information gathered by the commission will be useful in considering the whole problem of reconstructing the city.

RECOVERING THE PLEASURE GALLEY OF TIBERIUS CAESAR.

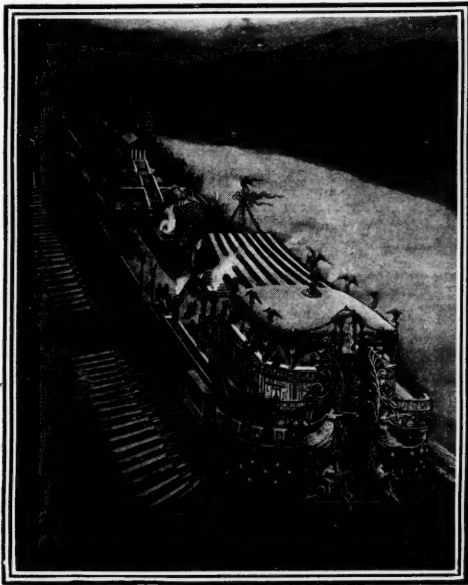
BURIED under the waters of Lake Nemi, a beautiful sheet of water in the Alban Mountains, about seventeen miles southeast of Rome, lie two pleasure galleys, which belonged to the Roman Emperors Tiberius and Caligula, and which contain art treasures that have been coveted for five hundred years. It was Julius Cæsar who first hit upon Lake Nemi as a summer resort; for on its banks he built a villa, splendid in those days, but later far outdone in brilliancy by the floating residences of his successors.

From pamphlets which have been published by Prof. Emilio Giuria and Signor Eliseo Borghi, it seems that Leon Alberti, an architect, made some attempts in the fifteenth century to recover the treasures buried in the lake. A hundred years later a fairly systematic exploration of the bottom of the lake was undertaken by De Marchi, a French engineer, who seems to have been the first to have made a fairly thorough survey for that day. He made a few drawings of the probable appearance of Caligula's galley as he conceived it, and from his designs a Flemish engraver prepared what he conceived to be its original appearance. An article in the *Scientific American* gives the substance of these pamphlets, and we quote from this article:

Although stray relics were found now and then, no further systematic effort was made to recover the contents of the old hulks until Signor Eliseo Borghi came upon the scene in 1895. Divers were engaged, and the two galleys located, measured, and carefully examined. From both, bronzes, pieces of wood, anchors, and ornaments

of all kinds were collected. Of the two vessels, the larger measures about 230 feet in length and 80 feet in beam, the smaller 200 feet in length by 65 feet in beam. It is because of their unusual size (war galleys were much smaller) that the vessels, it is inferred, must have been used as pleasure barges.

From the investigations of the divers we may glean much about the construction of the



From the *Scientific American*.

THE GALLEY OF TIBERIUS CÆSAR.

(As it probably appeared when afloat on Lake Nemi.)

vessels, even though we may not be able to present an absolutely accurate restoration.

Some of the wood which was used was soft, and some hard and resinous. The soft wood, employed mainly for sheathing and deck planking, is white pine, hewn, no doubt, on the shores of Lake Nemi. The harder wood is either red pine or larch, just which it is difficult to determine, because decomposition has set in. Oak pins were employed to hold down the planking. In sheathing the vessels the planks were placed edge to edge and joined by wedges. As the planks swelled, the edges formed a tight joint. Long copper nails were driven through the planks at intervals of four or five feet, the nails passing through one plank down to the next, and the succeeding nail being driven through the second plank to the third. Short copper nails held the planks themselves to the beams of the framework. To render the hull particularly staunch, an outside layer of hard plaster was employed, upon which a woven fabric was laid. Then came the above-mentioned sheathing of lead plates held by flat-headed nails two inches long. The construction of the beams of the framework is often ingenious. A beam was sometimes formed of a single piece, and in other cases of two superposed pieces nailed together. In order to form a long beam, two pieces were sometimes placed together with a lap joint, and the whole fastened by three large copper nails. The deck flooring was made of planks nailed to the beams. A method of joining the planks by keys was also employed, the keys running in two rows alongside the beam.

Although mostly copper nails were found, it is not unlikely that nails of iron were also employed. At all events, one of iron was found; the others (unless they are still undiscovered) have probably rusted away. The copper nails range in length from twenty inches to one inch; the larger may more properly be called spikes. In driving these soft copper nails it not infrequently happened that a knot or other obstacle was encountered. The result was that they curled into the form of a spiral.

In order to recover these ancient vessels, many projects have been proposed. It is obviously impossible to raise the crumbling hulls bodily. Therefore, Professor Malfatti has suggested the draining of the entire lake by means of a tunnel. Professor Giuria, however, has suggested the use of the old Roman outlet. According to Malfatti's scheme, the valley of Ariccia would be partially flooded. According to Giuria's scheme, the water will be piped across the valley of Ariccia, and will be made to drive an electric plant. If the bottom of the lake is ever exposed, the bodily removal of the two old galleys will present considerable difficulty. Professor Giuria has suggested the use of iron cradles built around the barges, upon which cradles the barges will be pulled out upon tracks. A number of Italian engineers are interested in the scheme.

THE NEW ITALIAN NOVEL PROHIBITED BY THE CHURCH.

IT is many years since religious Italy has been so stirred as it has been during the past few months by the publication of Antonio Fogazzaro's now famous novel, "Il Santo,"—"The Saint"—and its addition to the "Index librorum prohibitorum." Since its publication, last summer, this novel has been the theme of almost endless discussion, which has spread far beyond the borders of Italy. It was not the first work of this talented Italian Senator and devout Roman Catholic, who is one of the three representative figures of modern Italian literature, sharing this honor with d'Annunzio and Carducci. His novels, "Il Mistero del Poeta," "Piccolo Mondo Antico," and "Piccolo Mondo Moderno," are very popular in Italy. Signor Fogazzaro is a devout and loyal Roman Catholic, but stands with the reform movement in the Church. He has been called "a poet of the ideal" and "a knight of the spirit." The theme of "The Saint" is the fate of a devout and zealous Roman Catholic, who undertakes reform within the Church and encounters the cruel opposition of the hierarchy. William Roscoe

Thayer, in a long study in the August *North American*, gives the following summary of the book:*

Piero Maironi, a man of the world, cultivated far beyond his kind, after having had a vehement love-affair, is stricken with remorse, "experiences religion," becomes penitent, is filled with a strange zeal—an ineffable comfort—and devotes himself, body, heart, and soul to the worship of God and the success of his fellow-men. As Benedetto, the lay brother, he serves the peasant populations among the Sabine hills, or moves on his errands of hope and mercy among the poor of Rome. Everybody recognizes him as a holy man—"a saint." Perhaps, if he had restricted himself to taking only soup or simple medicines to the hungry and sick, he would have been unmolested in his philanthropy; but, after his conversion, he had devoured the Scriptures and studied the books of the Fathers, until the spirit of the early, simple, untheological Church had poured into him. It brought a message the truth of which so stirred him that he could not rest until he imparted it to his fellows. He preached righteousness,—the supremacy of conduct over ritual; love as the test

* An English edition of "The Saint," to which Mr. Thayer has written an introduction covering the same points as in this article, has just been brought out by Putnam's. The translation rights were arranged for before the work was put on the Index. M. Frichard-Agnette is the translator.

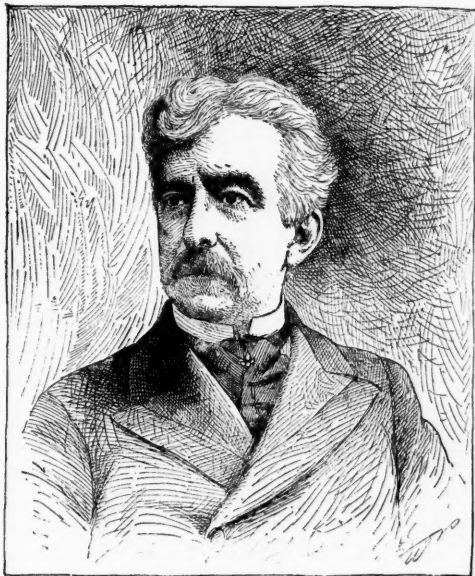
and goal of life; but always with full acknowledgment of Mother Church as the way of salvation. Indeed, he seems to doubt neither the impregnability of the foundations of Christianity, nor the validity of the Petrine corner-stone; taking these for granted, he aims to live the Christian life in every act, in every thought. The superstructure—the practices of the Catholic Church to-day, the failures and sin of clerical society, the rigid ecclesiasticism—these he must, in loyalty to fundamental truths, criticise, and, if need be, condemn, where they interfere with the exercise of pure religion. But Benedetto engages very little in controversy; his method is to glorify the good, sure that the good requires only to be revealed in all its beauty and charm in order to draw irresistibly to itself souls that, for lack of vision, have been pursuing the mediocre or the bad. Yet these utterances, so natural to Benedetto, awaken the suspicions of his superiors, who—we cannot say without cause—scent heresy in them. Good works, righteous conduct—what are these in comparison with blind subscription to orthodox formulas? Benedetto is persecuted, not by an obviously brutal or sanguinary persecution,—although it might have come to that except for a catastrophe of another sort,—but by the very finesse of persecution. The sagacious politicians of the Vatican, inheritors of the accumulated craft of a thousand years, know too much to break a butterfly on a wheel, to make a martyr of an inconvenient person whom they can be rid of quietly. Therein lies the tragedy of Benedetto's experience, so far as we regard him, or as he thought himself, an instrument for the regeneration of the Church.

What we see of Signor Fogazzaro from his book, Mr. Thayer declares is that

he is an evolutionist; he respects the higher criticism; he knows that religions, like states and secular institutions, have their birth and growth and inevitable decay. So Catholicism must take its course in the human circuit, and expect sooner or later to pass away. This would be the natural deduction to draw from the premise of evolution. Signor Fogazzaro, however, does not draw it. He conceives that Catholicism contains a final deposit of truth which can neither be superseded, wasted, nor destroyed. "My friends," says Benedetto, "you say, 'We have reposed in the shade of this tree, but now its bark cracks and dries; the tree will die; let us go in search of other shade.' The tree will not die. If you had ears, you would hear the movement of the new bark forming, which will have its period of life, will crack, will dry in its turn, because another bark shall replace it. The tree does not die, the tree grows."

As a work of art, "The Saint," Mr. Thayer believes, is worthy of the highest praise.

In English we have only "John Inglesant" and "Robert Esmere" to compare it with; but such a comparison, though obviously imperfect, shows at once how easily "The Saint" surpasses them both, not merely by the greater significance of its central theme, but by its subtler psychology, its wider horizon, its more various contacts with life. Benedetto the Saint, is a new character in fiction, a mingling of St. Francis and Dr. Döllinger, a man of to-day in intelligence, a mediæval in faith. Nothing could be finer than the way in which Signor Fogazzaro depicts his zeal, his ecstasies, his



SENATOR ANTONIO FOGAZZARO.

(Author of "Il Santo.")

visions, his depressions, his doubts; shows the physical and mental reactions: gives us, in a word, a study in religious morbid psychology—for, say what we will, such abnormalities are morbid—without rival in fiction. We follow Benedetto's spiritual fortunes with as much eagerness as if they were a love-story.

The love-story which runs through the work is in itself of no mean order. We quote again:

Jeanne seldom appears in the foreground, but we feel from first to last the magnetism of her presence. There is always the possibility that, at sight or thought of her, Benedetto may be swept back from his ascetic vows to the life of passion. Their first meeting in the monastery chapel is a masterpiece of dramatic climax, and Benedetto's temptation in her carriage, after the feverish interview with the cabinet officer, is a marvel of psychological subtlety. Both scenes illustrate Signor Fogazzaro's power to achieve the highest artistic results without exaggeration. This naturalness is the more remarkable because the character of a saint is unnatural, according to our modern point of view. We have a healthy distrust of ascetics, whose anxiety over their soul's condition we properly regard as a form of egotism; and we know how easily the *unco guid* become prigs. Fogazzaro's hero is neither an egotist of the ordinary cloister variety nor a prig. That our sympathy goes out to Jeanne and not to him shows that we instinctively resent seeing the deepest human cravings sacrificed to sacerdotal prescriptions.

Such a book, concludes Mr. Thayer, "sprung from no vain or shallow thought, holding in solution the hopes of many earnest souls, spreading before us the mighty spiritual

conflict between Medievalism still triumphant and the young undaunted Powers of Light, showing us with wonderful lifelikeness the tragedy of man's baffled endeavor to establish the Kingdom of God on earth, and of woman's unquenchable love, is a great fact in the world-literature of our time."

Some Catholic Comment.

The substance of the position taken by Catholic periodicals when they comment on the book is given in the verdict of the *Civiltà Cattolica*, the inspired organ of Rome: "It is not the Church that stands in need of re-

forms; it is not her place to adapt herself to society; rather should society subject itself to the Church, which is the infallible guardian of the truth." The *Catholic Register*, of Toronto, Canada, however, notes approvingly that Signor Fogazzaro has submitted without protest to the decree of the Index. This journal remarks:

Thus he attained in another way the purpose he had in writing, the putting of a high and holy instance before the world. For it would be difficult to exaggerate the moral courage which this Italian Senator has shown, so openly and so simply, in deference to his religious convictions.

BIRRELL AND THE BRITISH EDUCATION BILL.

WHAT manner of man is the sponsor of the education bill in the British House of Commons? Whatever else may be said of him, he is to-day and has been for months past the foremost representative of advanced Liberalism in Parliament. During the extended debate in the session that ended last month, Mr. Augustine Birrell was the center of English Nonconformist hopes in a peculiar sense. Just what his championship meant is set forth by Mr. Edward Porritt in an article contributed to the August *Outlook* (New York).

One other eminent Liberal, and perhaps one only, would have commanded, as Minister of Education, the full support and confidence of the English Churchmen. John Morley is not himself allied with either the established or the free churches of Great Britain, but his appointment would have meant fair play for "the sects." Morley went, however, to the India Office, and Birrell succeeded Sir William Anson at the Board of Education,—the first time, says Mr. Porritt, that a practicing lawyer has been called to this post. Former Liberal ministers of education were Forster and Mundella, manufacturers, and Acland, who had been ordained in the Church of England, which he had left to enter the House of Commons.

Mr. Birrell's acceptance of the education portfolio, according to Mr. Porritt, was an act little short of self-renunciation:

Reid, Asquith, and Haldane excepted, there was no lawyer who had established greater claims on the Liberal party in its long years of opposition than Birrell; and he had a hold on the country which was remarkable, in view of the fact that lawyers are seldom popular in English politics, as they are generally suspected of using politics only for their own advancement. Birrell, however, stepped out of the line of his profession and went to the Education Department. In doing so he

made a great personal sacrifice in the interest of the Free Church movement,—in the interest of the Nonconformity in which he was bred, and which he did not throw over when he had established himself in law and literature, and when every social avenue was open to him, including some avenues which are not usually open to men of Nonconformist ancestry and traditions.

Birrell did more than this,—he did more than accept an office which, for the time being, threw him out of the line of legal and judicial preferment. He knew when he went to the Department of Education that if the Liberals were continued in power at the general election it would fall upon him to frame and fight through the House of Commons a measure which must thrust the Established Church and the Roman Catholic Church out of the citadel which was built for them by Balfour and the Bishops in the Education Act of 1902. He knew that a Liberal success at the general election would bring with it a demand from the Free Churches for equality as regards elementary education and the uprooting of special privileges which, as regards the Church of England, date back to the thirties of last century. The atmosphere of the Education Department could not possibly be congenial to a man of Birrell's social and religious traditions; and there was nothing encouraging or stimulating in the experiences of his Liberal predecessors in the office.

Although fully aware of all this, Birrell, who was a Free Churchman and the son of a Free Church pastor, sympathized with the Free Churchmen in their struggle for a measure of religious equality. His going to the Education Department, says Mr. Porritt, infused more hope into Free Churchmen than any other political event since the repeal of the Test Acts in 1829.

It is held that the very strength of the Liberal majority (which includes 172 Free Churchmen) adds to Birrell's difficulties. That majority refused to consider compromise, and yet it was necessary to frame a measure that would not wantonly antagonize the House

of Lords. One secret of Birrell's success in carrying the bill through the Commons is revealed in Mr. Porritt's closing paragraph:

Fortunately for him, he has the gift of humor that Forster lacked. But neither humor nor physical endurance will alone suffice. Faith in the

justice of the cause he is advancing is as necessary as humor and parliamentary tact. Birrell has all these. Preëminently he has the deep-seated faith in the justice of his cause. While it is obvious that the bill has still some element of compromise, its enactment will put Birrell in the front rank of English statesmen of achievement.

DO ENGLISHMEN AND AMERICANS LOVE ONE ANOTHER?

SOME weeks ago Bishop Potter, upon his return to New York after a rather extended tour of Great Britain, was reported to have declared to a newspaper interviewer: "You may depend upon it, there is no love lost between the two countries. There is a good deal of gush in the British professions of attachment to our people." This statement was the occasion of a good deal of discussion in the weekly and daily press,—a discussion which has not been made less animated by the fact that the worthy bishop has declined to admit or deny the authenticity of the interview. In a number of British journals it has been asserted that if Bishop Potter actually made this statement in sincerity, he is not correctly informed as to the attitude of our British friends.

In a symposium of views on the subject recently published by the New York *Times*, the great majority of the writers of letters of opinion doubt that Bishop Potter really made this declaration. All of them, however, declare emphatically that the sentiments held by Englishmen for America and Americans are those of sincere and hearty friendship and admiration. The *Times*' list includes such well-known Britons as the Duke of Devonshire, Lord Rothschild, the Rt. Hon. George Wyndham, General Baden-Powell, Mr. Moberly Bell (manager of the London *Times*), Robert Donald (editor of the London *Chronicle*), Owen Seaman (editor of *Punch*), Admiral E. R. Fremantle, the actor Herbert Beerbohm Tree, the critic Andrew Lang, Editor Clement K. Shorter, of the *Sphere*, and a number of others, who were not willing to be quoted directly in this symposium.

Lord Rothschild's opinion is that "the goodwill and affection of England toward America is genuine and always on the increase." The average Britisher, declares Mr. Bell, of the *Times*, "has a contempt for the 'foreigner.' By a 'foreigner' he means a man who talks a language that he doesn't understand. He doesn't regard any man who talks English (whether it be Scotch, Cockney, Devonshire, or American English) as a foreigner—he's just

English. He doesn't gush over him; he just sticks to him." Mr. Lang believes that America has always been the most favored nation in England, while Lord Curzon is quoted as saying that "the friendship between England and America has been long and unbroken, and, Englishmen hope, it is unbreakable. It has ceased to be an aspiration, and is rapidly becoming a tradition, with the two peoples." Mr. Seaman thinks the affection and understanding exists, but that it cannot be perfect "until the United States are educated to appreciate the finer qualities of British humor."

"The Anglo-Saxon Myth."

The other side of the subject, which has been given in American periodicals from time to time, is presented with vigor and frankness in an article in the August *Critic*. In fact, the vigor and frankness of this article is such that the editor of the *Critic* not only prints it anonymously, as by "An American Resident in England," but disclaims all responsibility or indorsement. "If I were to live a hundred years in England," says this writer, "I could never forget that I was a stranger in a strange land." This attitude of Englishmen toward Americans was the regularly expected one, this writer goes on to declare, until within a few years. The Englishman's attitude toward Americans was "frankly antagonistic." The attitude of the American toward England and the English people, we are informed further, was not so unfavorable. We could not help, he continues, "a sneaking sentiment for England and for people who were brought up to speak the same language and whose literature was ours." This love and respect for English history and tradition, the writer in the *Critic* says, has been responsible for whatever affection Americans have ever had for Britons. He refers to Irving, Hawthorne, and Howells to show that it was only the England which was "the grave of our ancestors" which interested us. The writer then proceeds to list unfavorable, even bitter, comment by English writers on America and things American, not forgetting Dr. Johnson, Charles Dickens, and

Mrs. Trollope. The truth is, he declares, "we have never understood one another since our forefathers left England because they could endure that country no longer; we never shall understand one another while America remains America and England is the England we know."

IS IT A MATTER OF POLICY?

So long as John Bull was the richest, most prosperous, and most feared nation in Christendom, continues this writer, he did not care for anybody except himself. A few years ago, however, things began to go differently. "He was not prospering in the old fashion; he began to suffer in his most sensitive spot—his purse." Then, instead of turning his back on the rest of the world and refusing to shake hands with any one, "he took to offering his hand to anybody who would have it." The Continent, however, was not in an amiable mood, and the British colonies never at any time "have responded with quite that self-effacing and practical gratitude that he would find so becoming in them." Then, "in his isolation, he opened the floodgates of his affection upon us, of a sudden recognizing in us not merely a friend, but a relation." To quote again:

We ceased to be Yankees—we were transformed into Anglo-Saxons; though if the American is an Anglo-Saxon, why, then the Englishman is a pirate Norman of a castaway Spaniard. We were reminded that blood is thicker than water, though what earthly difference it makes to anybody if it is has never yet been explained even by the

Americans of distinction who, I regret to say, have used the odious phrase; their only excuse being that this was before it began to be abused. We were bidden to the touching spectacle of "Hands across the Sea," though we had long since learned to our benefit that hands, with the Atlantic between, can be raised against each other as easily as clasped in confidence. All Britain rang with the new *entente cordiale*, the English language apparently having no word for so un-English a sentiment. Certain of the newspapers almost licked our boots in excess of devotion, until one could not read them without blushing for John Bull, who, in his moments of expansion, has so terrible a facility for gush.

As far as this writer can see, "nothing has as yet come of this spasm of international cordiality, except that

the Stars and Stripes float (a trap for the tourist) from almost every big hotel and shop in London; that Anglo-American societies (a trap for the tradesmen) have been formed, Anglo-American dinners eaten, Anglo-American healths drunk; that London has been swept by "the American invasion"—an ingenious way of saying that Americans are putting up John Bull's big buildings, constructing his subways, marrying and financing his penniless peers, producing his art, editing his papers, running his theaters, making his shoes and his candy, keeping his teeth in order, and showing him generally how the thing should be done. As far as I can see, nothing else ever will come of this or of any other *entente cordiale* the English would impose upon us. A foolish phrase cannot undo the work of centuries. If we were to scratch our new Anglo-Saxon cousin, we would find the old Englishman, all blatant belief in himself and unreasoning prejudice against every other human creature.

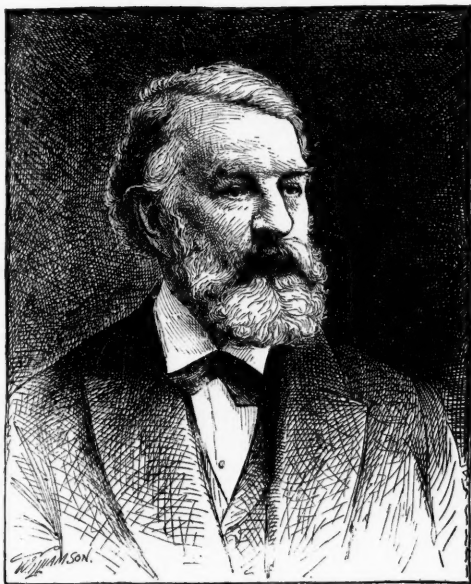
JOSEPH JOACHIM, NESTOR OF VIOLINISTS.

ONE of the very few favored children of fortune in the world of music, Joseph Joachim, has just celebrated his seventy-fifth birthday. For sixty-seven years this great violinist has been before the public, and he is to-day as great a favorite as ever. Mr. Arthur M. Abell, in an appreciative article (in the *Musical Courier*) gives us the following biographical data about the violinist:

Although born in Hungary, and commonly called a Hungarian, Joachim is in reality a German, for his ancestors emigrated from Wurtemberg to Hungary. He was born in Koepscheny, south of Pressberg, the old coronation town of Hungary. The Germans call Koepscheny "Kitsee." The inhabitants are nearly all of German descent, and they speak German among themselves to this day. Julius Joachim, Joseph's father, was a merchant in fairly good circumstances, and Joseph was the seventh of eight children. The family moved to Budapest when the boy was two years

old, so that he remembers nothing of his birthplace. Joseph's parents and six of the children had no especial talent for music, but his sister Regina had a nice voice and took singing lessons. It was her singing that awakened in little Joseph his great latent gifts. At the age of five he surprised the family by picking out on his toy fiddle the songs he had heard his sister sing. Upon the advice of a musical friend, Father Joachim decided to have the boy study the violin, and placed him under Stanislaus Serwaczynski, at that time the best teacher in Budapest. After his public début, at the age of eight, he was taken to Vienna, where, at the advice of H. W. Ernst, he was placed under the care of Friedrich Boehm, teacher of Rohde, Ernst, Hauser and other famous violinists, and one of the great violin pedagogues of all time. Boehm at once recognized that his pupil was a genius. He took a great interest in him, and worked so faithfully that at the age of twelve Joseph was a full-fledged artist.

Joachim was next taken to Leipsic, and Mendelssohn, on hearing him, was so enchanted that he at once offered to superintend the child's fur-



JOSEPH JOACHIM AT THE AGE OF 75.

ther education. Mendelssohn became a second father to the boy, and exerted upon his career an influence such as no other wielded over Joachim. Early in 1844, when Joseph was thirteen years old, Mendelssohn sent him to London, with a letter of introduction to Moscheles, and his London début was made in the Drury Lane Theatre, March 28 of the same year.

From that time on the talented boy played in concert with Moscheles, Mendelssohn, Grisi, Thalberg and Servori. He was not spoiled by his "unheard of success," however, and Mendelssohn took him back to Leipsic, where years of quiet study followed. Later in life Joachim made those helpful, inspiring acquaintances with Louis Spohr, Robert Schumann, Franz Liszt, Robert Franz, and the eccentric Pole, Lipinski, concertmaster of the Dresden Royal Orchestra. For three years, beginning in 1850, he was concertmaster at Weimar, where Richard Wagner's star had just arisen. In December, 1852, he made his Berlin début with great success. The next year he became concertmaster of the Royal Orchestra at Hanover, retaining this post for twelve years.

The famous Austrian musical critic, Edouard Hanslick, commenting on Joachim's first appearance in Vienna, particularly in complimenting the way the violinist rendered the Beethoven F Major romance,—said Dr. Hanslick:

Joachim gave it a big and reposeful rendering. He played the melody simply upon the bright E

string, when no other virtuoso would have denied himself the pleasure of drawing it down into a more æsthetic, deeper light dark tone. This plain, unadorned bigness seems to us the most preëminent feature in Joachim's playing. . . . The big, pathetic style will always move the public to wonder sooner than to love; it bows the head, and therefore cannot creep so quickly into the heart. As in the personal characters of men, so, too, in artistic individualities we see certain tendencies regularly classified, and thus separate, establishing great distinctions of excellencies and men. Hellmesberger's fine, bewitching naturalness played more directly into the heart than a passage of Beethoven, romantic Ernst more directly than unpliant Joachim. The two styles have the relation of masculine and feminine, or, to use a musical figure, of chromatic and diatonic genders in tone. . . . Joachim's trill is incomparable in purity and evenness; his polyphonic playing is at once so legato and so sharply distinct, that we often thought we heard two performers.

HIS LONG CAREER IN BERLIN.

In 1869 the Berlin Royal High School was founded, and Joachim, then world famous, was chosen to be its director. Since that time he has lived in the Prussian capital, and not a little of the tremendous musical development of this city during these thirty-seven years is due to his influence. Soon after settling in Berlin, Joachim, together with Wirth, De Ahna and Hausmann, founded the quartet which bears his name and has become so famous. He has been Johannes Brahms' greatest apostle, and it is chiefly due to him that the "spröde" creations of the sturdy old German oak found recognition during Brahms' lifetime. It was Joachim who introduced the Brahms violin concerto to Berlin, where it at once took a firm hold of music lovers in the German metropolis.

In 1899 the sixtieth jubilee of the violinist's first public appearance was celebrated at the Philharmonic. An orchestra of two hundred musicians was gathered together, all of the violins being Joachim pupils, who had come together from all parts of Europe to take part in the affair. As a classic performer, both of solo and chamber music, Joachim has set up a standard. His playing of the Beethoven concerto, the Tartini "Devil's Trill" and the Bach chaconne during the 60's and 70's is said to have been unequaled. The illustrious violinist still plays in public, and in his quartet performances he still has his good days. His solo playing is, of course, no longer what it once was. It is a matter of wonderment that he can play at all at the age of seventy-five. Joachim's name, concludes the writer quoted from, will go down to posterity as one of the great personalities of all time in the annals of violin playing.

CONTRASTING CHARACTERS OF POPES LEO XIII. AND PIUS X.

THE late Pope, Leo XIII., who was famed not alone as a pontiff, but as a diplomatist, was succeeded by a man of an entirely different stamp. It is interesting to note the contrasting points in their characters. Prince Baldassare Odeschalchi, of Rome, in discussing their personal traits and the characteristics of their pontificates (in the *Deutsche Revue*), disclaims writing a biography in any sense, as we are still too close in time to the majestic figure of Leo XIII. to give a proper portrayal of him, and to pass judgment upon his successor, Pius X., would, of course, be premature. The salient historical facts, however, and the bits of character study brought out by the Prince in the article referred to, can scarcely fail to arouse interest.

Pius X. differs as markedly from his predecessor spiritually as he does physically, and everything leads to the presumption that his activity will also be markedly different. We must not, however, suppose that essential changes will be brought about in the Church itself. The Pope cannot transcend certain limits. Should he do so, he would cease to be Pope. But he may, within those limits, completely manifest his individuality and shape his actions, as circumstances arise, in his own way.

Leo XIII. was already an old man when he became Pope; he was extremely slight, looking, in his closing years, more like a spirit; but the countenance of this apparition was illumined by vivid, glowing eyes, bright with intellectual fire.

Pius X., on the contrary, looks not like a spirit but like a man in sound health; his face expresses a friendliness which from a distance recalls the face of Pius IX., and which has contributed greatly to create the same extraordinary popularity which the latter enjoyed at the beginning of his pontificate. Leo XIII.'s bearing at receptions was gracious, but dignified and solemn; that of Pius X. is gracious but simple and patriarchal. Leo X. had a special predilection for Latin poetry; Pius X., it is said, loves music. The former attached great importance to maintaining the traditional pomp and outward dignity of the Roman curia; the latter, on the contrary, seems more disposed toward the simple ways of the Apostles. He does not, as had been the custom for Popes, sit down alone at table, but always in the company of some intimate friend. He feels happy in wandering about the loggie of the Vatican with his faithful friend, Monsignore Brassan, instead of being followed by guards and so on.

The temporal power of the popes had been destroyed years before Pius IX.'s death. That pontiff consequently shut himself up in the Vatican, which he never again left while alive.

He constantly protested against the loss of temporal power; his relations with the Powers of Europe were always strained, and with some he finally ceased to have any diplomatic relations. Leo XIII. had, before becoming Pope, acted as nuncio for a number of years, and had a special leaning towards diplomacy. His first efforts as Pope aimed at improving the relations between the Church and the various States. To this end he designed a complete political scheme, and skillfully initiated diplomatic negotiations with all the nations.

Upon his accession, the *Kulturkampf* was raging in Germany. Despite this, he addressed a letter to the powerful German Emperor, William I., urging him to restore peace with the Church. He addressed another to Prince Bismarck. Lengthy negotiations followed, leading finally to an agreement. Subsequently those friendly relations were formed with the German Empire which continue to the present day. This result is, in the Prince's estimation, to be accounted Leo XIII.'s greatest political success.

With France, too, he inaugurated a policy of reconciliation, but not with equal success; the official relations with that country grew, on the contrary, gradually worse, in spite of his efforts. The first years after the formation of the Republic, in 1870, many believers, unfortunately, used to proclaim that in order to be a Catholic one must be a Legitimist or a Bonapartist.

Leo XIII., with his keen insight, recognized that this was a bar to reconciliation. He urged the Catholics to avow honest allegiance to the Republic. But he was unsuccessful in his endeavors; the Republicans, on the whole, continuing Anti-Clericals, the Legitimists and Bonapartists remaining unchanged. The Radical element grew steadily stronger. Then followed the suspension and exodus of the religious orders, and the struggle has been continued in a still more violent form under the present Pope.

In Spain Leo XIII. fought constantly against the "evil practice" of the Carlists of seeking to monopolize the influence of the Catholic Church in their favor. The Pope's course of action induced Emilio Castelar, the great orator and former President of the ephemeral Spanish Republic, to pay him a visit of gratitude. The visit, noteworthy in itself, exerted a great influence upon Spanish public opinion. "It gave evidence that the Catholic Church is not bound to any special form of government; that it can harmonize with all forms—a truth which political parties have always tried to obscure."

And as to Italy? It must be confessed that

during Leo XIII.'s long pontificate no marked change took place in the relations between her and the Holy See. Yet we must not think that he was an enemy of Italy. As regards the recovery of temporal power, there was a profound difference between him and his predecessor. Upon its forfeiture, in 1848-'49, Pius IX. appealed to foreign Powers and was reinstated by their arms; the Prince feels firmly convinced that Leo XIII. would never have resorted to war in order to regain the temporal power. His intervention in Abyssinia for the purpose of freeing the Italian prisoners is evidence of his great friendship for Italy. Nor, had he been an enemy of the country, would there have been such genuine manifestations of sorrow at his death on the part of all classes and in all portions of the peninsula.

The great obstacle, in the Prince's opinion, to a reconciliation between church and state in Italy is the abstention of the Catholics from the polls; Pius IX. commanded this, and it was maintained during the incumbency of Leo XIII. The solution of the problem fell to his successor, and Pius X., the writer thinks, has solved it in the best possible way. He has not annulled the interdiction by a stroke of the pen, but he has given the bishops leave to permit participation in elections in their dioceses, upon occasions which they deem opportune.

Leo XIII. conformed in his receptions strictly to the old ceremonials; besides, he re-

ceived, as a rule, neither Senators nor Deputies, nor any official of the Quirinal. Upon this point Pius X. immediately introduced a radical change. Deputies, Senators, court-ladies, and high Italian officials are accorded free access.

More remarkable even than his political and diplomatic achievements were the encyclicals of Leo XIII.

For politics and diplomacy are limited to certain periods; the encyclicals deal with lofty concerns, cover broader fields; their effect is consequently more permanent. The encyclicals of Leo XIII., outside of their perfection of form, are the pivots, as it were, upon which the spiritual life turns. Particularly noteworthy are those treating of history. Those dealing with social problems showed the proper road which Christians should follow amid the complicated questions agitating our time. Among the encyclicals devoted to social problems, the *Rerum novarum* is of the greatest significance. These encyclicals, with their exactness of thought and clearness of exposition, seem all the more remarkable when we consider that the Pope's learning, though comprehensive, was somewhat antiquated, and that one must, as Lassale says, be equipped with the whole arsenal of modern knowledge to be able to deal with social problems.

The Prince concludes his remarks by saying that if the Italians were to elect a Pope exclusively to their liking, they could not conceive of choosing another than Pius X. "Without seeking to solve problems, which are perhaps insoluble, he has practically lightened the burdens of his countrymen in the struggle between church and state. And for that they are grateful to him."

WHY NOT AN ITALIAN-AMERICAN INTELLECTUAL ALLIANCE?

ONE of the latest tributes paid to our growing intellectual importance in the world forms the theme of an article in a recent issue of the *Italia Moderna*. The writer, Mme. Fanny Zampini Salazar, considers at length the intellectual alliances so recently brought about between the United States and France, and, later, between the United States and Germany in the matter of university exchange. She comments approvingly on the interchange of professors, on the success of Professor Wendell in Paris, and on such lecturers as Brunetière, Eduard Rod and Gaston Deschamps in America. She notes the great interest in the language and literature of France which has followed the growth of the Alliance Française, and the steady effort of Germany to retain some intellectual hold on her transplanted children. She calls upon Italy not to lag behind

in the new movement, and to fall in heartily with the ideas of Professor Joseph Spencer Kennard, of the University of Chicago, who is devoting himself to the work of making Italian thought and literature familiar to the American public.

Professor Kennard has been agitating this matter for some time, and has met with the most cordial encouragement from King Victor Emanuel III., who, in his character of enlightened modern sovereign, is taking an increasing interest in the relations of his country with others in intellectual ways. The Italian population in the United States far outnumbers the French, and Italians and Americans have much which they might learn from each other if Americans were not so ignorant of the real significance of Italian thought. Professor Kennard has drawn up a programme of ac-

tivity for the movement, which merits attention. Briefly stated, it consists of five main aims:

(1) Popular lectures both in Italy and the United States which will treat in an interesting, popular and enlightening way the life, manners, and customs of the two countries. (2) The institution of chairs of Italian literature in American universities and of courses for Americans in Italian universities. Under this heading could be arranged an exchange of eminent professors, similar to the German system. (3) The forming in all parts of the United States of clubs for promoting in every way possible the study of the Italian language. Italian libraries, free lecture courses, free instruction, diplomas given to public school pupils for excellence in Italian, and social gatherings where Italian is to be spoken are among the methods to be used in these clubs. (4) Exchange of students from the Universities of America to Italian institutions of learning, with a system whereby work done in the foreign country counts toward a degree in the home university.

(5) The publication of an Italo-American Review, written in English, which shall have for purpose to keep Americans in touch with the latest phases of American thought.

The author of the article in *Italia Moderna* is herself the editor of the *Italian Review*, published at Rome, and is heartily in sympathy with the projected movement. She urges that the Italian Government take it up, arguing that diplomacy should concern itself with other matters than politics, and that no better use can be made of the costly machinery of diplomacy in times of peace than to further in every way possible such a beneficent plan. She speaks of the warm feeling that has arisen between the two countries over the purely accidental contact in the care of the emigrants, and predicts from that the sympathetic understanding that would grow up from a more intimate mutual knowledge.

SOME OF THE COMMERCIAL POSSIBILITIES OF THE SIMPLON TUNNEL.

IN the *Rivista Marittima*, the Italian naval review, is an elaborate article by Prof. Gustave Coen, an Italian writer, on the future commerce of Europe and its relations to the new Simplon Tunnel through the Alps. Professor Coen begins by saying that, from time immemorial, the foreign trade of Europe has been largely directed to Asia, which ancient tendency was immensely stimulated by the opening of the Suez Canal. Coincident with the opening of the new tunnel through the Alps comes the enormous increase of commercial activity in Asia itself, which seems to be awakening from its century-long sleep and stirring to action.

The "Yellow Peril" means nothing more or less than the commercial invasion of Europe's markets by the amazingly cheap products of low-priced Oriental workmen. In the long course of time, however, the problem will finally be solved by one application of the division-of-labor principles, European workmen producing machine-made goods and Orientals hand-made products. This will mean a tremendous increase in trade between the two civilizations, and so great a simplification of the route between the West and the East as the annihilation of the Alps deserves to rank with the Suez Canal and the Trans-Siberian Railway.

On the other hand, an element to be considered in the question of trade with Asia is the industrial development of the United States and Australia. After a lengthy account of the material prosperity of the United States, Professor Coen declares that it is only a ques-

tion of the opening of the Panama Canal when that country will fling itself upon the Asiatic market with all the exuberant energy its people have shown already in their commercial career. What with Japan and the United States competing for the trade of Asia, Europe, hampered by traditions and a population inflexible from hard-set commercial habits, will stand little chance of being the chief merchant in that great new mart, in spite of improved means of communication,—what then? The Italian author quotes as his final motto the title of a French book, by Elysee Réclus, "Let us leave Asia and take Africa," and turns his attention to a consideration of the brilliant future that lies before the Dark Continent. This, he contends, is the ideal field for European exploitation.

It is too inconveniently situated to fall a prey to the grasping Yankees. On the other hand it is close to Europe. There is no thickly-settled native population of a comparatively high grade of civilization which forms an industrial rival of European labor, but, on the contrary, a sparse native population of savages who could not stand at all before the onslaught of trained and civilized Europe. Much of the popular prejudice against Africa as a country of arid deserts and unendurable climate is unfounded. The desert is as reclaimable by modern scientific methods as the plains of Nebraska and Kansas. There are already various nuclei of European culture and commerce in Africa: the prosperous Cape Colony enlarged by territory acquired during the Boer war; the Portuguese possessions of Mozambique which the author claims are too little known to Euro-

pean writers, as they have a great future before them. The Portuguese have already established prosperous sugar and coffee plantations, and the country is rich in valuable ores of all kinds. The State of Congo, although such a scandal to humane civilization, has been a source of untold wealth to its royal owner, and as for the countries of the North, they have in no wise changed physically and still retain the same possibilities as when Carthage threatened Rome and when Egypt was the most civilized land on the globe.

Professor Coen points out that all that is needed to anticipate the brilliant African future is the establishment of railroads. This, moreover, is almost accomplished. The long-expected line from the Cape to Cairo is, according to the English review, *Engineering*, about completed. This will be an event of the utmost significance, and in the beneficial results

of which the Simplon Tunnel will certainly aid. More than this, the great line from the Indian Ocean to Lake Victoria thrusts the path of progress through a wilderness hitherto untouched, and the Congo Free State and Germany each propose a line in the direction of the great lakes.

Of course the renaissance of trade with Africa, the fixing upon the Dark Continent by Europe as the natural outlet for its superfluous population and commercial products would mean the enormous growth in importance of all means of communication between the two continents. Spain, France and Italy would all profit by this, but the Simplon tunnel would undoubtedly divert great quantities of trade through Italy, especially as the Eastern coast of Africa will undoubtedly be the first to feel in a marked way the effect of European interest.

A MODEL ITALIAN COLONY IN ARKANSAS.

THE *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), in one of a series of articles on the South of the United States, written by the Italian ambassador to Washington, Signor Edmondo Mayor des Planches, and the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence) both devote considerable space to the inspiring story of one of the most successful Italian colonies known. There is still enough pioneer blood in Americans to be stirred by the account of the courage, perseverance, honesty, and skill of the little group of Italians who founded Tontitown, in Arkansas. Their qualities are the more admirable, as they persisted after a most disheartening experience which preceded the removal to Tontitown.

About fifteen years ago Austin Corbin, a New York capitalist, conceived the idea of settling Italian colonies in the State of Arkansas, and began on a great scale, securing a large tract of land at Sunnyside, and making arrangements with the mayor of Rome to settle one hundred Italian families each year. This experiment was a complete and disastrous failure, many causes contributing. Corbin died, and his heirs withdrew from the enterprise; the country was reeking with malaria, and the leaderless, discouraged Italians died from fever like flies. Then at this crisis arose a born leader of men, the parish priest, Father Bandini, who, refusing flattering offers for a more comfortable life, threw himself heart and soul into the task of rescuing the forlorn remnant of the Sunnyside colony. He cast about him for a healthy location, and found it about five miles from Springdale, where the inhabitants boast of the tonic quality of the air, of the

height above the sea, and, above all, that there are "no mosquitoes and no negroes." Father Bandini managed to borrow nine hundred dollars, and with this as total equipment he took to the spot the survivors of Sunnyside. Weak with fever and insufficient nourishment, and almost penniless, they seemed anything but desirable neighbors to the natives, who proceeded to add to the necessary evils of their existence the uncalled-for one of race hostility.



SIGNOR EDMONDO MAYOR DES PLANCHES.
(Italian Ambassador to the United States.)

The colony, however, prospered and began to have a life of its own, which was hotly resented by the Protestant onlookers. Father Bandini was then, as now, the center and moving spirit of the enterprise. In the spring, after the crops were in, the able-bodied men went off to work on railroads or in mines, while the weaker ones cared for the fields, and, under the direction of the dauntless little parish priest, erected the rude shelters which even now are superseded by modern, prosperous dwellings. The colony was begun in 1897, and already the original homes are used for barns and are pointed to proudly as a relic of pioneer hardships bravely undergone.

In the late summer the heads of families returned from work, bringing with them a certain amount of ready money, and setting to work at once harvesting the abundant crops. With the first surplus a little school was erected where Father Bandini taught, and next a rude little church arose. The hostility of the surrounding country grew, and petty annoyances increased until one night an attempt was made to burn the little settlement, particularly the school. The indomitable priest saved his colony, putting out the fire in the school building with his own hands, and issued at once a circular notice, printed in English, requesting all the neighbors of Tontitown to assemble at the church, as he wished to address them. The edifice was crowded to the doors with a curious, mocking mob. But Father Bandini rose and made so valiant and honest an appeal to the American sense of fair play, pointed out with so righteous an indignation the injustice of attacking a group of peace-loving, law-abiding folk who only wished a chance to become good American citizens, and asked so eloquently for coöperation in their hard task, that he fairly swept opposition before him. From that time on the relations between the natives and the Italians have been increasingly friendly, and to-day the prosperous condition of the colony is a source of pride to the farmers in the county. A cyclone swept across the

little group of houses doing great damage to property and killing one of the favorite young men of the colony, but the Italians, restored to complete health by the climate and to hope by the taste of success, set to work undaunted to reconstruct on a better plan.

To-day Tontitown is a model village. Fruit is extensively grown, and vineyards are springing up in all directions. The village itself has stores and halls, a post-office, and all the appointments of a complete modern settlement. The church is one of the handsomest country churches in the State and has nineteen memorial windows. Every penny of debt on the land and equipment is paid, and the church is almost entirely debt-free. Every family owns its own house and land, and several cows and horses. Not a single member of the colony has failed to pay his debts, or has failed in his farming, and not one has been brought into the courts for law-breaking.

Father Bandini, indefatigable, has organized and trained a band of Tontitown musicians, and this is in great demand by the surrounding country for various festivities. Amateur theatricals are encouraged by him, and the money made in this way goes for the betterment of the colony. The houses of the colony are better than those of their American neighbors, their land is worth more, and their credit is better.

Altogether it would be hard to imagine a more pleasant picture than this instance of the possibilities in American agriculture for our Italian immigrants. No detail is more significant of the value to Americanism of this prosperous colony of Italo-Americans than the fact that the Fourth of July—the national holiday *par excellence*—was first celebrated in northwestern Arkansas in a worthy manner by these enthusiastic adopted sons of Columbia.

CHINESE LABOR IN THE LIGHT OF MODERN INDUSTRY.

ATTENTION has lately been directed to China as a source of supply for the class of labor needed in carrying out great engineering undertakings like the South African mines and the Panama Canal. The subject of Chinese skilled labor is also not lacking in interest at the present time. Under this head, the article contributed to the *Engineering Magazine* for August by Mr. Barrett Smith, an engineer who has had much experience in China, is of special value. Among the impressions gained by the foreign observer after a brief experience with the labor problem in China, Mr. Smith notes, first, the differentiation between individuals. Contrary to the

popular impression among Occidentals, it is found that the Chinese display quite as much individuality as Western people. Secondly, the observer notes (usually under some special stress) evidence of surprising cleverness,—not only at imitation, but at creation. Finally, the observer usually comes to the conclusion that these beings, whom he had thought of before almost as creatures apart, are, after all, "surprisingly human."

In the course of Mr. Smith's article the fact is brought out that the standard of wages for men is the equivalent of twenty-five cents a day, United States currency, for skilled labor, and twelve and a half cents for unskilled.

The question of hours is a more variable quantity. When working for himself or for a native employer, the Chinaman utilizes every minute of daylight, but maintains a deliberate working pace. When working for a foreign employer, the standard working-day is generally ten hours. In the observance of Sunday as a day of rest, there is great diversity of practice. In Shanghai the observance of Sunday has become the rule, but in more isolated regions, where foreign influence is not strongly felt, only the Chinese holidays are observed, culminating in a solid three-weeks' shut-down at the Chinese New Year season.

To illustrate the Chinese ability to labor constantly with scant rest, Mr. Smith mentions one instance of an engine smash-up, centering about a broken connecting-rod. He states that it required forty-eight hours' work on the part of the whole engine-room staff to clean up the situation, and the average respite for sleep and refreshment during that time was less than three hours. The boss blacksmith, upon whom the bulk of the work devolved, was constantly on foot during the whole period. In the whole force only two or three expressions of complaint were heard throughout this irksome experience.

THE COLLEGE FRATERNITY AS AN EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCE.

IT has not been customary for writers on American higher education to take the Greek-letter societies in our universities and colleges very seriously, but, whatever may have been the attitude of the public towards these institutions in the past, the time has come when the importance of the fraternity in university and college life can no longer be ignored. Mr. Clarence F. Birdseye, writing in the *August Outlook* (New York), shows that there are nearly seventeen hundred fraternity chapters in American colleges and universities, that the chapter-houses owned and occupied by these societies number about three hundred, and that they have increased over fiftyfold in the last twenty-five years. The fact that many of the fraternities own fine chapter-houses and maintain close relations between their graduates and undergraduates has materially affected the policy of several of our leading colleges in the matter of private dormitories for the students. A typical case cited by Mr. Birdseye is that of Amherst, which within thirty-five years has increased its student body 80 per cent., but reduced its dormitory space 40 per cent. In 1870, 135 (53 per cent. of its 255 students) roomed in the dormitories, and the remainder in town boarding-houses. In 1905, of its 455 students, 109 (24 per cent.) lodged in the dormitories, and 205 (43 per cent.) in the twelve fraternity buildings. In order to house these 205 students, Amherst would have been required to add hundreds of thousands of endowment to what is now devoted to the maintenance of the college.

Marked differences in respect to the hold of the fraternities on the student body in the various colleges and universities are disclosed in Mr. Birdseye's article. For example, Prince-

ton has no Greek-letter fraternities whatever, Harvard almost none, while at Yale fraternity conditions materially differ from those in other colleges. In some colleges, 85 per cent. of the students are members of fraternities. The University of Michigan leads, with chapters of seventeen general, seven women's, and thirteen professional fraternities—thirty-seven in all. Each chapter has from ten to forty undergraduate members. In the old-fashioned small college each student came into personal touch with each member of the faculty. There was an intense individualism, which, to a great extent, has disappeared under modern conditions, but as this individualism has disappeared there have grown up the small fraternity units of from ten to forty members each, which daily influence the students throughout their course. As Mr. Birdseye points out, this influence—whether good, bad, or indifferent, is dominant in many American colleges. "If our huge faculties cannot, like their smaller prototypes, closely touch the lives of their individual pupils, may not this be done through thoughtful alumni acting on the undergraduate members of their own fraternity, thereby greatly increasing the number of those who will pursue their college course earnestly and for its own sake?"

Mr. Birdseye frankly admits that neither college nor fraternity conditions are at present all that could be desired. Unless promptly checked, the evils, as he shows, will grow far worse and more difficult to root out. The reform, in his opinion, must come from the fraternity alumni. In most colleges the fraternities are so strong that if the atmosphere of the fraternity houses, which for four years are the undergraduates' homes, can be changed for

the better, the whole undergraduate situation will be changed.

EFFECTIVE CO-OPERATION.

Mr. Birdseye has a definite programme, to which he calls upon the college fraternities to devote their great wealth and influence:

First, to a careful study of present undergraduate conditions, and to improving those conditions in all their own chapters.

Second, to inciting their own active members to do their best possible work and get the best possible training during their college course.

Third, to realize that in many ways they are their undergraduates' only hope for true individualism.

Fourth, to co-operate in a large way with one another in the study and elimination of the too prevalent waste of lives during the college course.

Fifth, to reach backward into the preparatory schools and clean up moral conditions there.

Let the fraternities, and as well the colleges, be judged, not by wealth or age or numbers, but by the results which they work out in the lives of their individual members; by the real value of their output, and not by the size of their capital or plant. These theories have been tried in a small way, and have been successful, but these conditions can be brought about only from within the fraternities themselves, and not by any pressure from without. The fraternities must themselves study thoroughly, conscientiously, and systematically the great problems of student life which have recently grown up, and which the faculty system has been powerless to solve. In such a work they will have the hearty co-operation of their own alumni, within and without the faculties, and of many alumni who never belonged to a fraternity. The chief danger is that we shall undertake a really great work in the narrow-minded and bigoted "secret society" spirit that has so long prevailed in fraternity matters; that we shall treat it as a fraternity and not as an educational problem. It is no longer a fraternity question, but one

of educational and vital importance to thousands of undergraduates, whether they belong to a fraternity or not.

In concluding an editorial which strongly indorses Mr. Birdseye's article, the editors of the *Outlook* suggest an interesting historical parallelism between the ancient "Halls," out of which grew the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, and the modern American fraternity-house. The Halls were originally small groups of students living together with a few teachers, who directed their studies and, to a very large extent, studied with them. In line with this parallelism, it has been suggested by members of the Alpha Delta Phi Fraternity, one of the foremost Greek-letter fraternities in the United States, that a large fund be raised, the income to be used for resident or foreign graduate students, to be selected from the entire fraternity, with the hope of stimulating scholarly interest and ambition. The *Outlook* goes still further in suggesting that there be placed in chapter-houses, by the action and support of the graduates, young and promising graduate students, who, living with the men and acting as tutors, somewhat in the English sense, should direct the work of the undergraduates; "teach them how to study, an art in which American students are lacking; stimulate their intellectual life; and in a familiar, informal way co-operate with the college in its highest work." As the *Outlook* well says, the means for trying this experiment in many fraternities are ample, and it would seem that the time is now ripe for more definite and higher direction of this great force in the American college community.

INDIA AND THE OPIUM TRADE IN THE FAR EAST.

TO all students of Eastern politics the Anglo-Japanese alliance suggests more than one question in regard to the prospective development of international trade relations. One of the most important of these questions is the subject of an article contributed to the September *Appleton's* by Mr. Chester Holcombe, author of "The Real Chinese Question." In this paper Mr. Holcombe reviews the course of British diplomacy within recent years as related to the growing dominance of Russia and the threat of an encroachment on British interests in India. He recalls attention to the fact that when the partition of China was discussed between the powers, notice was served that the British would claim

the great valley of the Yangtse River, the most valuable portion of the Chinese Empire, as their share. Mr. Holcombe maintains that a double motive controlled the selection of the portion to be claimed by Great Britain in the event of the dismemberment of China. The first motive was commercial, the other political. Such a claim would secure to British trade and exploitation by far the richest and most valuable portion of the empire, and, furthermore, would interpose British arms and a great British colony against the further progress southward of Russian domination in eastern Asia. This advantage, Mr. Holcombe holds, is now given in even better measure by the British alliance with Japan, since Japan,



MR. CHESTER HOLCOMBE.

through the practical seizure of Korea and the possession of Port Arthur and the Liao-Tung Peninsula, to which is added the control of the railway lines and mines throughout the southern portion of Manchuria, does for its ally, without cost or care to Great Britain, what that great power had proposed to do for itself many hundred miles farther south in the event of the distribution of China.

Ever since Great Britain refused to renew the charter of the British East India Company and assumed direct control of that empire, about seventy years ago, it has been her ruling purpose, not only to maintain a secure hold upon the country, but also to develop Indian commerce to its utmost limit. In this direction, one of England's most persistent efforts is that of forcing open the Chinese market for opium produced by Indian farmers under government control and a government monopoly. England's success in this endeavor has been remarkable. In 1880 the total import of the drug into China was less than 300,000 pounds. From 1838 until 1900 the total amount imported was 284,582 tons, or an average of rather more than 1,120 pounds each hour of every day and every night in that time. This does not include the immense quantities smuggled into China during the period named. From this traffic the British Government received, within the years named, a revenue of about \$1,329,135,630. The profits derived from the business, which is almost exclusively

in the hands of British subjects, would be represented by an even larger sum. Besides, Great Britain has waged war in this effort to force opium upon China, and the cost to the latter country would include enormous sums in the form of forced indemnities and costly endeavors to protect the Chinese people in such wars.

ALLIANCE WITH JAPAN CONSERVES THE OPIUM TRADE.

Mr. Holcombe is unsparing in his arraignment of the British Government, which he declares has been the most dangerous foe of the entire Chinese race which it has ever been their ill fortune to meet.

She has been the constant and successful enemy to the development of the enormous natural resources of the empire, and to the honest commerce with China of every nation. The merest glance at the facts will show this statement to be well within the bounds of truth and moderation. Take the year 1871 as an example. Three-fifths of the total British imports into China consisted of opium. In that year nearly \$64,000,000 worth of the drug was imported, while the total exports of all Chinese commodities to all parts of the world were under \$105,000,000. The bill of John Bull against China that year for opium furnished, smuggled opium not being included, was nearly three times the amount due to China for all merchandise sold to all foreign nations, Great Britain only excepted. Thus, from year to year Great Britain has balanced with opium the accounts of the world with China. When a foreigner of any other nationality pays a debt due the Chinese, the money goes, not to the Celestials, but to Bombay, Calcutta, or London. It is hardly necessary to add that opium constitutes by far the most important factor in British commerce with China, which exceeds that of any other nation.

Thus, it is shown that the largest and most profitable item of British commerce with China depends upon the continued possession of India. India furnishes the crop, and China the market. The British Government has long had reason to suspect and fear the ultimate designs of Russia upon India, but, even aside from this peril, any Russian progress through Manchuria, to be inevitably followed farther southward in China, would at once cripple British trade in China and eventually open the way to another attack upon India at a point on its northern frontier. Thus, a coalition with Japan is to be welcomed as a safeguard against a simultaneous attack upon England's Indian possessions and British commerce in southern and eastern Asia.

Mr. Holcombe clinches his argument by an analysis of the terms of the Anglo-Japanese treaty. He describes the alliance as a notice served upon the three great powers of Europe

not parties to it to accept what they have already secured and be content. As between Japan and England, Mr. Holcombe declares that the alliance is "inequitable, vicious, and underhand." Japan entered the conflict with Russia determined to put an end to the brigandage and marauding propensities of the four great powers of Europe, of which Russia appeared to be the most dangerous type, and she emerges from the war "victorious, indeed, but transformed into an ally and supporter of that one of the European quartet which has wrought the worst havoc of all in Asia." Beginning as a champion of her own and neighbor's inalienable rights, she ends as the cat's-paw of Great Britain. She gives much and

gains nothing excepting what is of equal advantage to Great Britain.

Curiously enough, Japan, while really supporting Great Britain's opium traffic with China, has herself always resisted the introduction of opium into Chinese territory. Opium is contraband in every port and part of the Japanese Empire. Japanese officials are now engaged in eradicating the opium vice from Formosa, where it had a strong hold when the Japanese secured possession of the island. Yet, as Mr. Holcombe points out, Japan has bound herself to aid, if called upon, in the protection of British poppy fields in India, and, constructively, in marketing the harvest in China.

PROTECTION FROM TUBERCULOSIS THROUGH INTESTINAL VACCINATION.

AN interesting series of experiments upon immunity from tuberculosis, secured through introduction of tubercular bacilli into the intestines, is described in a recent number of the *Comptes Rendus* by MM. Calmette and Guérin. The authors refer to the elaborate work of von Behring, by which it has been shown, as the result of a great amount of experimentation, that, in the case of calves, injection of human tubercular bacilli into the veins has resulted in the protection of the animal against attacks of bovine tuberculosis. In their researches during the past two years MM. Calmette and Guérin have been led to the conclusion that in the case of animals tubercular infection is not generally due to the inhalation of infected dust, etc., but, far oftener, to the absorption of tubercular bacilli with the food in the digestive organs. Here the disease germs absorbed in the chyle remain a longer or shorter time, depending upon the age of the animal. In the case of adults, where the quantity of bacilli taken into the stomach is considerable and where the introduction of infected products is more frequent, the bacilli inclosed by polynuclear leucocytes are carried through the lymphatic circulation and the veins to the heart and finally to the capillary vessels of the lungs. The character of the infection varies with the number and virulence of the bacilli, since these determine the mobility of the leucocytes and, hence, the rate of progress made through the tissues.

The authors therefore determined to experiment, with the object of securing, if possible,

immunity for the animal while still young, the method being to introduce tubercular bacilli through the stomach instead of through the veins. The danger of working with such material is, of course, serious, and great care had to be taken that the experiments should be open to no suspicion. Three calves were selected and two of them vaccinated through the œsophagus with five centigrams each of a culture of human tubercular bacilli. After forty-five days the two calves were again vaccinated by the same method as before, but, this time, with twenty-five centigrams of the culture. All three animals were after four months carefully examined and showed no tuberculine reaction. They were each then fed a meal containing five centigrams of a fresh culture of bovine tubercular bacilli. At the close of the incubation period the tuberculine reaction was marked in the case of the "blank," but was entirely absent in the case of the calves that had been vaccinated. These results seem to prove, as far as they go, that, with living human tuberculosis, two inoculations, with an interval of forty-five days, will suffice to protect calves against the bovine disease. They are unsatisfactory in that they involve the use of virulent bacilli, with the consequent danger of causing spread of the disease by means of the excreta, etc.

A new series of experiments was now begun with cultures which had been treated in one way or another to modify their virulence, with the result that immunity was secured as before. Thus, calves treated with bacilli which had

been subjected to five minutes' boiling were found to resist all attacks from the disease, precisely as in the case of those with which virulent cultures had been employed. The modified bacilli find their way to the lungs through the circulation just as before. *How long* this immunity persists the experiments have not yet established. In each series of experiments the "blank," which had not been subjected to previous inoculation, showed the tuberculous reaction at the close of the incubation period after having been fed, like the others, with infected food. What is even more remarkable than this result is the fact that bacilli cultures which had been stirred in absolute alcohol, or treated with iodine or with chloride of lime, were capable of producing immunity with just as much success, apparently, as the most virulent.

As a result the authors state: "Young calves can be vaccinated by simple intestinal absorption of bacilli which have been subjected to heat, and this method of vaccination

presents no kind of danger." They claim that their results only require further confirmation before the method, which is evidently harmless, may be applied generally to human beings. The authors look forward to the administering to infants soon after birth, and again a few weeks later, of milk containing a definite amount of mixed human and bovine tubercular bacilli which have been subjected to heat, care being taken in the meantime to protect the children from the milk of tuberculous animals until they shall have become immune,—say, during three or four months. Special nurseries would probably be necessary in the case of the children of tuberculous parents.

The authors conclude with the hope that they may have discovered a method by which the terrible scourge of tuberculosis may be met successfully in the earliest stages of childhood, and that the day is not far distant when this disease will be even more rare than smallpox is to-day.

ARE AMERICANS FORMULATING THE RELIGIOUS CREED OF THE FUTURE?

M. D'ALVIELLA, who discusses in the *Revue de Belgique* (Brussels) the progress of religion in the United States, is by no means a novice in the study of his theme. He visited this country in 1883, at a time when the dawn of a great industrial cycle lent color to the argument of European preachers that America was lost forever to all influence of godliness. M. d'Alviella then predicted a grand religious revival. To-day, he says, his prediction of 1883 has been realized in a great measure, but not in the way he then foreshadowed. A rationalistic theology, he thought at that time, would be the point of departure of the revival. The event has proved, however, that theory has been subordinated entirely to practice in the progress of the modern spirit of religion in America. Dogma has given way to strenuous activity, and the revival has matured on a foundation of good deeds before good words. This, he says, has ever been characteristic of the churches of America, which have always placed their conception of religion less in simple tenet than in the practice of well-doing. Quoting him:

The religious activity of the United States is due, before all else, to the following causes: (a) The growing importance which sociological problems have assumed in the United States more than else-

where; (b) moral reaction against the abuses of individualism and internecine competition; (c) a clearer perception of the rôle of religion; (d) the impossibility of finding a better ground on which to satisfy the growing aspirations for an understanding between different creeds; (e) the influence exercised by the Congress of Religions held in Chicago in 1893.

The intellectual classes in the United States, M. d'Alviella continues, are beginning to see that the moral advancement of the people is a science, the first principles of which must be abortive without the basis of a specific religious belief.

The nature of such a religion must be primarily sociological since its main object is to find a solution for human evils like pauperism, intemperance, prostitution, gambling, luxury, and uncleanness. As Cardinal Gibbons said at the Congress of Religions held at Chicago, "All beliefs can well meet on the same ground when the end in view is the raising of mankind."

In the opinion of M. d'Alviella, Unitarianism, with its strong rationalistic tendency, is the religion which, above all others, is most adaptable to practical America. In his view, "the bent of all sects, except those with conservative creeds like the Catholic Church, is toward Unitarianism, as affording the safest criterion of worldly conduct." He expresses a

high regard for Unitarian pastors as preaching the soundest form of religious principle for a young nation. Dealing with Protestantism on the whole, he has the following remarks to make:

The most noteworthy phenomenon in Protestant life in America is the "decay of confessional belief." For the Protestant it appears to be unnecessary. Two-thirds of them hold no confessional belief and most of the remainder have forgotten the dogma. As a corollary of this, the Protestant holds that there is no reason for a pastor to leave his church because he fails to agree with all it teaches, no more than there is reason for a politician to abjure the whole policy of a Government because he does not agree with certain of its measures. The result is that heresy and inhibition are no longer frequent in the States and no more signal portent of the humanitarian or sociological spirit of American religion can be adduced.

To the Methodists he awards the palm for their methods of propaganda and the excellence of their educative methods. American Catholicism he deals with very fully, noting in that faith certain tendencies which cannot, he thinks, commend themselves to the Vatican, its dependence on which appears, year by year, to grow more lax. He says:

There is little of intransigence in American Catholicism, the first trait of which seems to be to maintain a good understanding with other confessions for the common good. The priest is on excellent terms with the pastors of other denominations and there seems to be desired on all hands in the American Catholic Church, a desire that unity shall prevail so that the truth may be

attained. The Catholic Church in America is also intensely patriotic. It fully accepts the Constitution and the principle of separation of Church and State. All Catholic American churchmen hold that the United States has a divine mission to fulfill in spreading the lesson of human liberty and the doctrine of the rights of man. The Paulist Fathers are the best type of the Catholic priests of America, their labors being for the good of the masses. They are the incarnation of American Catholicism militant, fighting, as they do, that the proletariat may be uplifted.

M. d'Alviella hints that a crisis is at hand in the relations between the American Catholic hierarchy and the Vatican. The bond of union is not indissoluble, he suggests. There is, moreover, a lack of unity in the Catholic Church of America itself, on one side being the conservative orders, like the Jesuits; on the other the progressive bodies, like the Paulists. The Catholic Church of America, he adds, gains few converts from Protestantism; it owes its yearly increase in number to immigrant Catholics.

As to the many Ethical Culture societies, M. d'Alviella holds that they inculcate the idea of duty apart from any belief; that they have a great future and that, like Spiritual Scientists and Theosophists, their effect is for morality in all their principles and doctrines.

Finally, he is of opinion that the religious spirit of all the modern world will gradually assimilate the tendencies of the American, and that practical and secular religion will on all hands supersede the theoretical and contemplative for the betterment of mankind.

CAPITAL PUNISHMENT AND CAPITAL CRIME.

THE death penalty now exists in forty of the forty-five States of the Union. In the State of Kansas it has been permitted to lapse through the refusal of governors to issue warrants for executions. In the four remaining States—Maine, Michigan, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin—it has been abolished altogether. Mr. Thomas Speed Mosby, who is pardon attorney to the Governor of Missouri, recently caused inquiries to be addressed to the attorney-generals of the forty States which still have the death penalty, asking their opinion as to whether capital punishment tended to diminish capital crimes. Summarizing the replies which he received in *Harper's Weekly* for July 21, Mr. Mosby states that eighteen of the forty officials questioned declined to express an opinion. Only sixteen of the attorney-generals of States which inflict the death pen-

alty declared themselves as clearly of the opinion that capital punishment does tend to diminish capital crime. Two of the forty were positive in their conviction that the death penalty does not tend to diminish capital crimes, and stated their opinion that the death penalty should be abolished; while four of the forty gave qualified answers. In the five States where capital punishment does not exist the attorney-generals have noted no increase in capital crimes since the abolition of the death penalty, and generally expressed themselves as satisfied with the conditions existing in their respective States. In Michigan, Wisconsin, and Rhode Island capital punishment was abolished over fifty years ago and has not since been reenacted. It was abolished in Iowa several years ago, but was again enacted by the Legislature, as the attorney-general says, "be-

cause of the increase of murders in the State." The experience of Maine, on the other hand, as Mr. Mosby points out, has been quite the reverse of that of Iowa. The death penalty was abolished in Maine in 1876. In 1883 it was reenacted for the crime of murder alone. In 1885, just two years later, the Governor of Maine in his message, referring to the death penalty, remarked that there had been "an unusual number of cold-blooded murders within the State during the two years last passed," and that the change in the law relating to murder had not offered the protection anticipated. Two years later, in 1887, the death penalty was again abolished, and the sentiment of the people of that State is said to be so strongly against capital punishment that it is not likely to be reestablished.

After showing that the general tendency of American legislation has for some time past been against capital punishment, Mr. Mosby points out certain fallacies in the argument of those who lay great stress upon the severity of punishment. There are many individual factors of crime, none of which, he contends, can be shown to come within the power and scope of the penal code. For example, students of criminology know that homicidal tendencies are more frequent in warm climates. It has been asserted that more than 90 per cent. of the criminals come from the cities. W. D. Morrison, in his work on "Crime and Its Causes," says that London, with one-fifth of the population of England and Wales, furnishes one-third of the indictable crimes.

Society, according to Mr. Mosby, can have but two rational objects in capital punishment. One is to protect itself from the individual

malefactor. This object can be conserved as well, and to greater profit, by life imprisonment. The sole remaining object is to deter others by the example. This it has not done, and this is proven, not only by the prevalence of capital crimes where capital punishment prevails, but by the fact that where capital punishment does not exist the so-called capital crimes are not more frequent. So the death penalty has been totally abolished in five of the American States, in seventeen of the twenty-two cantons of Switzerland, in Holland, Roumania, and Portugal, and practically in Belgium and Italy.

In Mr. Mosby's view, the case against capital punishment is made when it is shown simply that it is unnecessary. "It is coming to be understood that the majority of human beings do not refrain from the commission of capital crimes merely through fear of being hanged. Every person who commits a capital crime knows that, in States maintaining capital punishment, the death penalty is affixed to that crime. From a personal study of more than two thousand cases, I am convinced that most crimes are committed by persons who either (1) expect to escape all punishment, or (2) who, upon the spur of the moment, are regardless of all punishment, or (3) who are governed by cosmic, social, or individual factors which render the prospect of punishment inoperative as a deterrent agency at the time of the commission of the crime."

As to the justification of capital punishment on the ground of retaliation and vindictive punishment, according to the Mosaic principle of "an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth," this conception of justice is no longer recognized in our civil law.

THE OLDEST FIXED DATE IN HISTORY.

HISTORIANS of the Hebrew people were formerly troubled by the haunting possibility that contemporary sources of knowledge outside of Holy Writ might some day disclose a remoter era in the career of man than the chronology supposably obtainable from the Old Testament would permit. All such fears long ago disappeared, not because the dreaded data have not been forthcoming, but because the Old Testament does not offer any basis for a calculation of the age of man on the earth. In an article in the *Biblical World*, Dr. James H. Breasted, professor of Egyptology in the University of Chi-

cago, recounts how the oldest fixed date in history was determined. In the first place, he reminds us:

Anthropological studies have long since demonstrated the enormous antiquity of man. The dates, however, with which the anthropologist, operating in conjunction with the geologist, deals necessarily cannot be fixed, but move within the widest limits. It is of interest, therefore, to study briefly the state of the case from the historical archaeologist's point of view. Recently ascertained data make such a statement of especial interest at this time. The data to which we refer are confined to the civilization of the Nile valley.

Professor von Luschan, the distinguished

director of the Ethnological Museum in Berlin, showed Dr. Breasted, some time ago, a number of specimens of worked flint implements wrought by human hands, and found by him in deposits in the Nile valley, which, he averred, were demonstrably older than the valley itself. Leaving these prehistoric problems to the anthropologist and geologist, however, recent study of the historic monuments in the Nile valley, declares Dr. Breasted, has furnished an earlier fixed date in the history of civilization than has ever before been obtainable. He continues:

There are three great epochs in Egyptian history: (1) the Old Kingdom, (2) the Middle Kingdom, (3) the Empire. These great epochs are separated by periods of profound obscurity. Dead reckoning back from the conquest of Egypt by the Persians in 525 B. C. shows clearly that the beginning of the Egyptian Empire was not less than 1,052 years before the Persian invasion. This gives us a date in the first half of the sixteenth century B. C. as the beginning of the Egyptian Empire. The method of dead reckoning cannot be employed for the centuries immediately preceding the empire, owing to the paucity of monuments. Fortunately, however, we possess an astronomical date for the Middle Kingdom which fixes its beginning as almost exactly 2,000 years before Christ, thus enabling us to overlap the chasm between the beginning of the empire and the Middle Kingdom. At this point, however, we are confronted by another obscure period, where the meagerness of the monumental documents is such that the length of the obscure age preceding the Middle Kingdom remains an uncertain quantity. During this period there ruled at Heracleopolis, near the Fayûm, two dynasties, the Ninth and Tenth, embracing eighteen kings. As we know that the Eleventh Dynasty ruled over 160 years, we must add the length of the period ruled by the eighteen Heracleopolitans to the year 2160 B. C. in order to obtain the date of the accession of these Heracleopolitan Pharaohs. Allowing each of the eighteen a reign of sixteen years (a sum below the customary average in a long period of time under ordinary conditions of government), these kings ruled a total of about 288 years. They thus began to rule in 2448 B. C. At this point we can resume the method by dead reckoning, carrying us back through the Old Kingdom, which began with the Third Dynasty, nearly 3,000 years before Christ; and thence into the recently discovered first two dynasties, which are thus shown to have begun about 3400 B. C. In the use of this last date for the beginning of the dynastic kings of Egypt, we should always recollect that we carry back with us the uncertainty involved in the unsettled length of the Heracleopolitan period (Ninth and Tenth Dynasties). The margin of uncertainty, however, will not exceed a century either way.

The highly developed civilization already attained by the Egyptians of the First Dynasty makes it certain that a long development of civilization, involving centuries of struggle and achievement, must have preceded the ad-

vent of the First Dynasty. It is incontrovertibly evident, Dr. Breasted avers, that this development began far back in the fourth thousand years before Christ. In this statement, however, we arrive only at a very wide margin of uncertainty. Is it not possible to obtain a date of greater precision in this remote epoch of human civilization?

The Egyptians had early determined the length of the year as 365 days, not being aware of the additional quarter, or nearly a quarter, of a day. This convenient year they divorced from the phases of the moon, and divided it into twelve months of thirty days each, with an intercalary period of five days at the end of the year. This, the first practical calendar ever evolved by an ancient people, remained an achievement unparalleled in any other early civilization. It was as useful to men of science as to civil life in general, and for this reason it was in later times adopted by the Greek astronomers as the basis of all their computations. With the addition of exactly a quarter of a day, it is still employed by modern astronomers, and I need hardly add that it was this calendar, now known as the Julian, which passed from the Nile valley with the Romans into the life of Europe, and thence to us moderns. The astronomical event by which the Egyptian marked the beginning of his year was the first appearance of Sothis, the Dog Star, at sunrise after he had been invisible for some time. They celebrated this day with a feast; and this "Feast of Sothis," which occurred on the nineteenth of July (Julian), was the New Year's Feast of the Egyptians. The interval between the heliacal risings of Sothis determined the length of the Egyptian year. Now, this Sothic year was almost exactly, and in 3231 B. C. was exactly, a quarter of a day longer than the Egyptian calendar year of 365 days. Every four years, therefore, the calendar reached the end of the year and began the next year one day too soon, so that after four years the rising of Sothis fell on the second day of the new year. As this process continued and each calendar New Year's Day arrived earlier and earlier, it finally passed gradually around the whole year and again fell on the astronomical New Year's Day. This complete revolution, of course, consumed four times as many years as there were days in the calendar year; that is, four times 365, or 1,460 years. Or we may say 1,461 calendar years equals 1,460 Sothic years. This shift must have been early noticed, although the actual shift within an average lifetime was not so great as to occasion inconvenience. Thus, each generation accepted the place of the calendar in the seasons as they found it, and without remark considered it as a matter of course that the beginning of the inundation or the advent of summer heat fell on about such and such a date of a certain month. A peasant of fifty or sixty years,—that is, at the end of an average life,—hardly remarked that the seasons were ten or twelve days later in the calendar than when he was a lad of ten.

This slow revolution of the calendar on the fixed astronomical year is observable in incidental references on the monuments. In the Middle Kingdom an inscription in Sinai, for

example, narrates how an unfortunate official, dispatched to the copper mines there, arrived at his destination in the third month of (calendar) winter, when he and his men suffered greatly from the summer heat.

This shows a divergence of seven or eight months between the calendar and the seasons. The shift of the calendar can thus be traced for some two thousand years backward from 700 B. C., as determined by six different dates of astronomical or seasonal events, and a series of other significant *natural* occurrences, in terms of the *calendar*. Now, we know from a statement in Censorinus that some time in the period from 140-41 to 143-44 A. D. the calendar coincided exactly with the seasons, and that in one of the years in that period the rising of Sothis took place on the first day of the calendar year. An entire revolution, such as we have described, was completed at that time. That revolution must have begun 1,460 years earlier; that is, in 1320 B. C. (ignoring the uncertainty of four years). The next earlier revolution must have begun in 2780 B. C.; that is, at about the beginning of the age at which we are first able to observe contemporary indications of the shift, as we have already noticed. Now, it is impossible that this calendar was first introduced as late as the twenty-eighth century B. C., in the midst of the highest culture of the Old Kingdom. Moreover, the five intercalary days at the end of the year, proving the use of the shifting year of

365 days, are mentioned in the Pyramid Texts, which are far older than the Old Kingdom.

The calendar, therefore, existed before the Old Kingdom; but if this be true, "we must seek its invention at a time when its seasons coincided roughly with those of nature, as they must have done at its introduction." This carries us 1,460 years back of their coincidence in the Old Kingdom; that is, the calendar was introduced in the middle of the forty-third century B. C. (4241 B. C.). This is the oldest fixed date in history. This fact demonstrates not only a remarkable degree of precise knowledge of nature in that remote age, but also stable political conditions, and a wide recognition of central authority, which could gradually introduce such an innovation.

It was to the men of the Delta, therefore, in this remote epoch, concludes Dr. Breasted, that we owe a fundamental contribution to civilization, which, with but very slight change, we have since inherited from them; "and the date at which they introduced and made practically available one of the greatest conveniences in the whole complex of civilization is the earliest fixed date in history."

ANIMAL AND PLANT LIFE IN THE ANTARCTIC ZONE.

THE numerous south polar expeditions that have been made recently have brought to light many curious facts about the possibilities of life in these desolate wastes.

One expedition remained in the ice of Graham Land (65° S. Lat.) for two winters, giving the explorers opportunity to make observations during an unusually long period of time. Dr. K. C. Anderson and Dr. S. V. Hodgson give accounts of observations made during this expedition in a recent number of the *Zoölogisches Centralblatt* (Leipzig).

Above everything else, they tell us the intense cold under which the struggle for life is carried on is worth noting. The average temperature during the animal breeding season ranges from 2 to 8 degrees below zero, Centigrade, while the summer temperature at the surface of the ocean is from .50 to 1.50 below zero. Nevertheless, the waters swarm with fish and invertebrates that thrive in spite of the continuous cold, the threatening ice and the attacks of seals and birds that eat them voraciously.

The presence of sponges in such undesirable surroundings was not so surprising, for they are

sluggish, insensate organisms that have never progressed beyond the borderland of the animal kingdom. But the delicate, phosphorescent jelly-fishes,—medusæ and ctenophores,—which are hardly more than transparent films endowed with life, also live in this world of intense cold and danger, although it was difficult to get data of these, on account of the difficulties in collecting them, for they were so easily injured by the ice crystals that were drawn up with them in the nets. Star-fishes, sea-urchins, sand-dollars, shell-fish in great variety and myriads of the vast aggregation of minute floating organisms included in the general term of *plankton*, were all found here; many of them microscopic particles of exquisite delicacy that would seem the least capable of contending for life in such an environment. The mammals were represented by several species of seals, whales, and dolphins. These become of special interest in the light of the evidence that their remote ancestors left the land, the natural habitat of mammalia, and underwent many curious changes of structure in becoming adapted to marine life. One of these changes is the seim-like arrangement of whalebone, which takes the place of teeth in the whale, although the teeth always appear first during the whale's development as a sort of reversion to family traditions. The petrel is a characteristic bird-pioneer that usually makes its home in the open sea of the sub-antarctic zone, although it sometimes pushes its way farther on, past the barrier of pack-ice. Sea-mews, whose regular habitat is the sub-antarctic zone, had also

penetrated the desolation of Graham Land, and had extensive nesting grounds there.

In all, eighteen species of birds were found in the region of 65° S. Lat., although most of them were true birds of passage, going there only during the short summer.

The most striking feature of the fauna here is furnished by the penguins, whose comical dignified appearance is so familiar in our museums. The largest species of penguin seems to be specially attracted by the hardships of this frozen world and is circumpolar in its distribution. Five species of penguins were found, most of them gathering in enormous

companies, while breeding grounds covering vast areas were found in Graham Land and the South Shetland Islands.

Dr. Ostmann, commenting in the same journal on the origin of the wonderful deep-sea fauna, notes that the uniform low temperature, which is always near the freezing point, is one of the most important characteristics of the deep sea, and that such conditions of cold could not have existed at a time in the formative history of the earth, when there was no cold water in the littoral region, but it must have been produced by the cold waters flowing away from the poles, and the deep-sea fauna must be related to the fauna of the polar areas.

THE NATIONAL NEED OF COMMERCIAL AGENTS.

IN our day, it is impossible to separate political questions from commercial questions, and the impossibility is doubly evident when it concerns a country where commercial relations have been the principle of a political reconciliation, whose increasing advantages are enjoyed and recognized by both countries reconciled.

When French statesmen study France's relations with England, says a writer in the *Temps* (Paris), they devote as much attention to the exchange markets as to the relations of the chiefs of state or to the actions of the ministers. If "small gifts nourish friendship," large national purchases are equally beneficial to a country's diplomatic relations. Excellent results were obtained by the creation of the office of commercial agent at the French embassy in London. The place was intrusted to the French consul, M. Jean Perier, and results convinced France that she ought to have commercial attachés wherever she cares to be represented. So far, she has none except in London.

It is paradoxical that a country whose geographical situation, customs, habits, and qualities compel the national commercial development as a vital necessity should neglect so easy and generally beneficial and fruitful a means of increasing its business. Experiment has proved its value, but it must be noted that zeal, intelligence, and tact are the indispensable qualifications of a man empowered to stand for the business interests of a country. It is not a question of political favoritism or of "spoils." Such work can be done only by men who can organize systems. It must be prepared like a campaign of war, because its

success guarantees peace. This subject deserves discussion at the Quai d'Orsay (the Chamber of Deputies) in France and in the Senate of the United States. A discussion of the merits of the measure must result in a unanimous vote of the modest appropriation necessary for the support of the office.

The work of a commercial attaché is not the temporary work of collecting information. It is the hard labor of an active initiative. When M. Perier was sent to London, M. Delcasse instructed him to favor and to further French exportation by every practical and efficacious means in his power.

It is of interest to note the best methods of passing commerce from an inorganic state to the condition of the most approved form of systematic organization. In the case of the French representative in Great Britain, the agent had to find, in London, French representatives for French commerce. National commerce follows where the people of a nation lead; and the commercial attaché is a link. His duty is to advertise in special journals and to carry on active and steadily increasing correspondence. He must be on the best terms with the boards of trade and with all the associations for commercial expansion.

Ten years ago, France sent a representative (named Regnault) as minister to Morocco. Regnault outlined the national system of commercial representation. The matter was reviewed recently by M. Demolins, and M. Perier lent all his efforts to the venture. The result is that the agents who represent France in England have created a methodical representation of French commerce, which representation has reestablished to French credit, and to inestimable future profit, a situation which was gravely menaced by foreign competition,—the Danish competition in agricul-

tural products, and the German competition in manufactured goods. Since her first venture, France has tried the same system on her own territory. The French minister of foreign affairs has given M. Perier charge of the commercial offices of the state, and France is expected to guide its affluents and their commercial advantages back to the alimentary sources. The system is to be like a successful irrigating system, which renders the whole country fruitful.

The commercial agent in London has established an agency in the Jura, one in the departments of Charente, and one in Normandy. The region of the Jura annually sells millions of watches, enamels, eye-glasses, instruments of precision, and shell combs. In the department of Charente the trade in butter and caseine, added to the trade in cognac, amounts to over twelve millions annually in the English market alone. If we consider this, we can better appreciate the results of the improved organization of the commercial exportation service. Such efforts are the best means of national success. The writer in the *Temps* says: "Let us have national commercial agents in Germany, Austria, Italy, Spain, Russia, the United States, and the Levant. Let us do everywhere just what we have done in London. We should gain considerable more by it than can be gained by a pusillanimous, so-called 'protection.'"

The consuls ought to be co-laborers of the commercial attachés. The commercial attaché plays a general part, and the consul's duty is to follow out, in detail, all that the commercial agent plans for the total.

The French consul to Dublin, M. Lefevre-Meuval has seized up the full meaning of the commercial agent's office. In his report of 1904, he complains that he sees Ireland, "the country so near France," neglected by French exporters, when it might offer a vast outlet for some of the branches of French industry. By the consul's advice, henceforth there will be two direct lines of navigation between France and Ireland—one (bi-monthly) between Cherbourg and Dublin. The other was recently decided upon. It will assure a weekly service (direct) between Dunkirk, Dublin, and Belfast. In 1905, the first of these lines imported to Ireland 2,300,000 francs worth of French goods,—a promising beginning! Even now the looms of the north of Ireland have, by an association with France, secured important business for their tweeds. A great French automobile factory has established a very prosperous branch in Dublin, and, balancing that, the exportation (notably in hams) has augmented considerably during the year. These are only beginnings, but they show what can be done by judicious commercial diplomacy. Lefevre-Meuval says in his report that such beginnings are an encouragement to pursue the work now in hand and to favor French commerce by every means possible,—notably, by the creation of a line of passenger steamers from Cork to Havre.

Whether times are hard or easy, England buys merchandise amounting to a milliard of francs annually. So, as the French naval attaché at London said at a Franco-British dinner: "As England is the most ancient, the nearest, and the most faithful of our commercial colonies, we have nothing but congratulations to offer each other when the happy activity of some of our consuls is in question. Let us felicitate them, and let us hope that all our representatives may be like them."

RECENT EXPLORATION OF LAKE TCHAD.

THE progress of exploration into little-known parts of Africa, followed by the marking off of "spheres of influence" and the granting of commercial concessions, is making us fairly familiar with the geography and geology of that vast and, until comparatively recently, rather uninteresting continent. Within the past few years surveying parties, chiefly British and French, have been busily engaged mapping all the immense area from Abyssinia to Sierra Leone, north of the equator and south of the Sahara Desert. One of these Franco-British commissions, which had for its object the delimitation of the boundaries of the regions bordering on the Niger, numbered among its members the French Captain Tilho, who has mapped Lake Tchad, the great salt lake of North Central Africa. A recent arti-

cle in *Cosmos* gives some of the details of this survey, from which the following have been taken:

Comparing the results of this recent work with those of the exploration by Barth and Nachtigal about fifty years ago, Captain Tilho finds that the lake has decreased considerably in area, the loss being about a million hectares,—about two and one-half million acres. Its present size is nearly 20,000 square kilometers, or 4,500 square miles,—almost half the size of Switzerland.

Except on the west, where there is a definite shore, Lake Tchad has no clearly defined boundary. In crossing the region one may pass from clear open water to vast marshes, showing mudbanks lined with scattered weeds; next may be found islands of meadowland

separated by lagoons of large size; then perhaps inhabited islands intersected by wide or narrow canals, which cut far into the land and show innumerable branches. The soil is rarely firm, and much of the region is dangerous for those who attempt to cross it on foot, because of large areas of deep soft mud.

Like Nachtigal, Captain Tilho believes in the existence of subterranean streams which convey the water of Lake Tchad to basins hundreds of kilometers away. In the case of the basin of Bahr-el-Ghazal further study is necessary to determine which of the two is the higher, and hence the source. With regard to the view once held that Lake Tchad is receding on the eastern side, but actually growing on the western, Captain Tilho expresses his

dissent. He seems to find contraction going on all around, even on the west, where some of the villages, evidently once upon the actual shore, are now quite far back from the water. Thus, of what used to be a vast mid-African sea, there now remains only a pestilential swamp. Is it to disappear entirely, like the Great Salt Lake of Utah? Or is this slow drying up only a part of a cyclic change of climate? Places were pointed out to the members of the commission by the natives, which, during the past eighty years, had passed, they said, from a condition of dry basins to one of lagoons. It is not at all impossible, according to Captain Tilho, that the variations in the size of Lake Tchad are periodic over long spaces of time, how long are yet unknown.

THE WONDERS OF CELLULOSE.

“THE organic archetype of conservatism,”

—this is the metaphorical, scientific definition of cellulose given by Dr. Robert Kennedy Duncan, professor of industrial chemistry in the University of Kansas, in an article in the current *Harper's*, the fourth of a series on “The Chemistry of Commerce.” Cellulose, he continues, is “too thorough a morsel for time to swallow; when pure, it rusts not, neither does it decay, and it can endure throughout all generations.”

This substance, Dr. Duncan goes on to inform us, is the commonest of common things. It forms, when dry, more than one-third of all the vegetable matter in the world. The greater part of plant formation is cellulose. This substance is the structural basis of the plant,—the skeleton of it. What it is actually we do not know, except that its chemical formula is generally indicated by the expression $C_6H_{10}O_5$. These are the proportions by weight, but what is the actual intrinsic value of each of these elements we know not, nor can the substance be analyzed. Cellulose substances and compounds are not crystalline.

They are either amorphous or jellylike substances,—called “colloids” in the lecture-room and “messes” in the laboratory,—substances up to within a year or two impossible to deal with, and left, for the most part, severely alone. All this indicates that however interesting this cellulose is as the structural basis of life, and however important it may be to us to build it up and split it down, cellulose research is a difficult matter.

From the standpoint of industrial utility, there is no limit to the value of cellulose.

First in importance, says Dr. Duncan, is the manufacture of paper. The conception of the average man is that paper is made of “rags.” This answer, however, is absurdly inadequate, for “not in the entire world does there exist one one-thousandth part of the rags necessary for the world's paper.” The great bulk of paper used to-day is made from the substance of woody fiber known as cellulose X,—otherwise known as wood fiber. Cellulose is available from both wood and cotton, but, in general, says Dr. Duncan, the cruder forms of paper,—that used in boxes, for wrapping, and for the bulk of newspapers,—is made, not of rags, but of disintegrated deal boards pounded and mashed and amalgamated into paper. A good deal of chemical wood pulp,—that is, wood from which the incrusting impurities have been chemically removed and which then consists of almost pure cellulose,—is used for the paper upon which periodicals are printed. This chemical process, by the sulphite method, is described as follows:

Factories using this method exist nearly always in the neighborhood of pine forests and deposits of iron pyrites. The sulphur dioxide obtained by roasting the pyrites is passed up through a high tower packed with limestone, down through which a stream of water trickles. Under these conditions the burnt sulphur gas enters into combination with the lime, and ultimately constitutes a liquid consisting partly of free sulphurous acid and partly of bisulphite of lime. This liquid passes into a “digester,” filled with wooden chips, where, at a temperature of about $117^{\circ}C.$, it attacks and demolishes everything in the wood but cellulose. The cellulose is thus left free and uncombined and, after being bleached by chloride of lime, pure.

Thence it passes as cellulose to the paper factories, and emerges there as paper for books so good that only an expert can tell the difference between it and a paper made from the cellulose of rags. To such an extent are the forests of our country being swept up into newspapers and books that it urgently requires supervision; the only comfort, apparently, being that there is a cycle of reaction by which the newspapers and books will ultimately be burnt, or will decay, into carbon dioxide, which will be absorbed by the forest into new wood, which will appear again as newspapers and books *ad infinitum*. For the cellulose from wood is different from the cellulose from cotton or linen,—it *does* decay, or at any rate it *may* decay.

Turning, then, to cotton, Dr. Duncan grows enthusiastic over the degree of perfection to which the use of cellulose in this direction has been brought. He gives this fact concerning cotton manufacture discovered by a certain John Mercer some years ago:

If a piece of cotton,—which, it must be understood, is pure cellulose,—be placed in a strong solution of caustic soda, the soda causes the cellulose to unite with a molecule of water, the cotton shrinks nearly 20 per cent., it becomes nearly 50 per cent. stronger, and it takes on a greater dyeing capacity. But this is not all; if, now, the cotton fabric be stretched tightly upon a framework so that the shrinkage mentioned above cannot take place, the soda solution brings about a transformation in its constituent fibers in such a way that the fabric assumes over its surface a silken sheen. The beautiful fabrics so manufactured are known as mercerized cotton, and this manufacture now amounts to an enormous industry.

In considering the cotton supply of cellulose, we must not forget other plant sources, such as linen, jute, ramie, and hemp.

Taking up the consideration of cellulose from the standpoint of a chemically active body, Dr. Duncan records the number of commercial combinations with other chemicals possible with this mysterious substance. It is used as vulcanized fiber, by soaking paper in four times its weight of a concentrated solution of cellulose in zinc chloride. A preparation of this is used to make fabrics waterproof and immune from the attack of insects and mildew.

Many of the heavy coverings used for express wagons and "busses" are made of these "Willesden" goods,—so called from the town in which the company has its seat. If the fabrics so treated are rolled or pressed together when in the gela-

tinized condition, they become welded to form an extraordinarily thick and resistant texture. During the South African war compound papers of this manufacture were employed as barricades, for they are bullet-proof. Under proper conditions of treatment, cellulose will dissolve, also, in acetic acid (acetic anhydride) with the formation of a viscous liquid which dries into films of great tenacity and high luster. Owing to its waterproof character and to the fact that it is a non-conductor of electricity, this cellulose acetate provides a splendid insulating material for electrical wires, and its manufacture for this purpose is now an established industry.

Viscose is a valuable chemical product of cellulose. It is used for making the stoppers of bottles and for other purposes where it is necessary to hermetically seal any receptacle. Further, when nitric acid is added to cellulose cotton we have cellulose hexanitrate, or, more commonly, gun-cotton,—a high explosive sometimes modified until it becomes blasting gelatine and the smokeless powder used in war. In another form, when the lower nitrates of cellulose are dissolved in camphor, ether, or alcohol, we have collodion, used as a vehicle for medicine, as a substitute for sticking plaster, for bandages, and in photography. These same lower nitrates, when dissolved in solid camphor and alcohol, under proper heat and pressure, can be worked like rubber. Then they become the celluloid of commerce, the uses of which are manifold and too well known to mention.

A detailed description, in chemical terms, of the process of manufacturing artificial silk from cellulose follows. This artificial silk is used in making braids. It is more brilliant than natural silk. It is also used largely for covering electric wires.

While the subject of cellulose is still a mysterious, unknown one to us, the industries already based upon known properties of this substance are of immense value to commerce. On this point says Dr. Duncan, in conclusion:

A pine tree is worth \$10 a ton; cut and stripped it is worth \$15; boiled into pulp it is worth \$40; bleached it is worth \$55; which, turned into viscose and spun into silk, is worth \$5500. From these data it is seen that cellulose has interesting possibilities. Yet so far we have entered but on the fringe of its possibilities.



BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

Men and Women of the Hour.—To the September *Cosmopolitan* Mr. Vance Thompson contributes some interesting notes on the careers and personalities of the winners of the Nobel prizes awarded for the advancement of literature, science, and international peace, together with a brief account of the life of the donor, who, it will be remembered, was the inventor of nitroglycerine and dynamite, and was influenced in establishing these magnificent prizes by the writings of the Baroness von Suttner.—Under the rather flippant title, "Chicago's Five Maiden Aunts," Mr. William Hard writes in the *American Magazine* of the achievements of five women, who, he says, "boss Chicago very much to its advantage." These women are Miss Margaret A. Haley, who instigated the franchise-tax fight; Miss Mary McDowell, a trade-union organizer among women; Miss Julia C. Lathrop, who has done much to reform conditions in the charitable institutions of Illinois; Miss Jane Addams, of Hull House, "perhaps the best citizen of Chicago;" and Dr. Cornelia DeBey, a member of the Board of Education.—A rather intimate sketch of the King and Queen of Spain, by C. N. and A. M. Williamson, appears in the September *McClure's*. This article, written since the marriage and narrow escape of the royal pair from a hideous death, contains many particulars about Princess Ena, or Queen Victoria, as she is now called, which will be quite new to most American readers.—In *Appleton's Magazine*, Mr. Clifford Howard writes of Senator Tillman, of South Carolina, whom he aptly characterizes as "the American from the soil." Mr. Howard's article quite accurately epitomizes the changed attitude of many Americans toward the South Carolina statesman who, ten years ago, was introduced to the United States Senate as the hero of the pitchfork.—In the current *World's Work*, Mr. Zach McGhee has an article on Senator Tillman, whom he calls the smasher of traditions.—Mr. David Graham Phillips, continuing in the *Cosmopolitan* his series of character sketches entitled "The Treason of the Senate," has chosen for the September installment of his invective Mr. Foraker, of Ohio, and Mr. Lodge and Mr. Crane, of Massachusetts. Mr. Foraker is characterized as an out-and-out "railroad Senator," Mr. Lodge as a machine politician disguised as a "gentleman scholar," and Mr. Crane as the favorite of Senator Aldrich.—"A 'Bad Man' Who Made Good" is the significant title of a sketch of Benjamin F. Daniels contributed to the *American Magazine* by Edwin B. Ferguson. Daniels, it will be remembered, is the man whose nomination by President Roosevelt for the office of United States Marshal of Arizona caused much criticism five years ago, when it appeared that Daniels once served a term in the penitentiary. The President withdrew the appointment at the time, but last

March, having become clearly convinced that Daniels was a fit man for the office, he again appointed him to the marshalship. The appointment was confirmed by the Senate, and Daniels is now a fully commissioned officer. In the course of his sketch Mr. Ferguson makes clear the President's justification in this action.—The current *World's Work* contains three noteworthy articles on well-known men and women of the hour. The career of Mr. Lindon W. Bates, which has been so helpful in securing Galveston from floods and in dredging the Volga River in Russia, is sketched by Mr. French Strother, under the title: "An Engineer of World-Wide Successes." The article is illustrated and concludes with a description of Mr. Bates' original plans for a lock canal at Panama. Mr. McGhee's article on Senator Tillman has been already noted. A sympathetic, appreciative sketch of Mr. David Lubin and his work, by Isaac F. Marcossan, tells the story of the self-made California merchant who originated the movement for the International Institute of Agriculture. A portrait of Mr. Lubin accompanies the article.—Mr. William Randolph Hearst "is not a force in prospect, but a force in being." He has revolutionized American journalism, and one might as well attempt to ignore the weather as to attempt to ignore Mr. Hearst. These are the dicta of Mr. James Creelman, who writes a snappy, picturesque sketch of the journalist-congressman in the current *Pearson's*, under the title: "The Real Mr. Hearst." The article is copiously illustrated.

Footnotes of History.—In *Scribner's* for September appears the first of three papers on "The First Forty Years of Washington Society," made up from the diaries and family letters of Margaret Bayard Smith, edited by Gaillard Hunt. The initial paper, entitled "Washington in Jefferson's Time," contains many entertaining reminiscences of the capital city at that period of its existence when it had, as Mr. Hunt remarks, a society more definite and real than it has come to have in later days. The latter part of the paper records visits and conversations with the Madisons at their country home Montpelier.—"One of Franklin's Friendships"—that with Madame De Brillon during the years 1776-89—is the subject of an interesting contribution to *Harper's* by Worthington Chauncey Ford. The article is based on hitherto unpublished correspondence. Mme. de Brillon was a vivacious French woman with whom Franklin became very well acquainted in Paris.—In the *Century*, Prof. A. V. Williams Jackson gives a popular account of "A Religion Nearly Three Thousand Years Old," the so-called Persian Fire Worshipers of Yezd. Professor Jackson has made original studies in the Orient, and acquired at first hand much fresh information con-

cerning this ancient cult.—In the same number of the *Century*, Henry R. Elliot describes the famous haystack prayer-meeting at Williams College in 1806, from which dates the modern movement for foreign missions. The centennial anniversary of this event will be observed this fall at Williamstown.—In the *Cosmopolitan Magazine*, Mr. Alfred Henry Lewis continues his "Story of Andrew Jackson," into which he has succeeded in weaving a great number of verified historical incidents.—A more modern epic is sung by C. P. Connolly, who tells in *McClure's* the story of the development of the Montana copper industry and the beginning of the famous Clarke-Daly feud.—Mr. Homer Saint-Gaudens contributes to the *Metro-politan* a character-sketch historical article apropos of the centennial of the death of Charles James Fox, the British advocate for the American colonies during the war of our Revolution, who died in September, 1806. A portrait reproduced from an old engraving supplements the interest of his article.—Much the same kind of a sketch, with Aaron Burr as a subject, is begun in *Pearson's* by Alfred Henry Lewis, under the title: "The Romance of Aaron Burr." The first installment consists of two chapters, illustrated, treating of the Burr love-story which centered around Theodosia Prevost.—A chronicle of historical incidents which have for their turning point some "Costly Carelessness,"—such as the overturning of the lighted lamp by the Chicago cow, which started the great fire, and other less-known incidents,—is contributed to the *Grand Magazine* by T. C. Bridges.

On Art and Artists.—Considering under this general head painting, literature, and the drama, and personalities connected with these branches of art, we find a number of interesting articles in the current periodicals. In *Scribner's*, Mr. William Walton has a finely illustrated tribute to "Eastman Johnson, Painter." In the career of the artist Johnson, says this writer, "there seem to have been exemplified the natural results of the combination of an innate talent so positive that it scarcely had need of the usual training in the schools, and of a singleness of purpose which was equally out of the common."—In *Harper's* we have reproduced a hitherto unknown portrait of Gainsborough, engraved on wood by Henry Wolf from the original painting, with some appreciative comment by W. Stanton Howard.—In *Appleton's Magazine*, Mr. S. Decatur Smith, Jr., comments interestingly upon a number of rare portraits of Napoleon.—The first seventeen pages of *Munsey's* are taken up with a finely illustrated article, in tint, on Franz von Lenbach, by Christian Brinton.—In the same magazine, Mr. C. Howard Conway discusses the artistic advance of photography, under the title: "The Artist of the Camera." This article is illustrated and printed on a special tinted paper.—Sculpture is represented, in the *World's Work*, by an article on the work of E. C. Potter, contributed by Mr. Henry W. Lanier. The article is illustrated.—The *Atlantic* is true to its literary traditions, and contains among its noteworthy articles for September one on "Three American Poets of To-Day" (William Vaughn Moody, Edwin A. Robinson, and Ridgley Torrence), by May Sinclair, with selections from their verse and comment; and also one on "The Power of Bible Poetry," by J. H. Gardiner. This writer believes that the trumpet tone of Bible verse, despite its

blank form, still holds the emotions.—In his usual trenchant style, Mr. James Huneker considers Henrik Ibsen as a dramatic poet in *Scribner's*, while in the *Cosmopolitan* Alan Dale attempts to prove that women are greater actors than men, and in *Appleton's* Frank S. Arnett discusses hopefully the prospects of some contribution being made to the drama by college students.

Travel Sketches.—As usual, *Harper's* and the *Century* lead off in respect to the number of travel articles of the American magazine type. In *Harper's* appear "A Little Mexican Town" (Coyoacán), by Thomas A. Janvier; "Life and Sport in Nubia," by Captain T. C. S. Speedy; and "Kentish Neighborhoods, Including Canterbury," by William Dean Howells.—The *Century* opens with an article by Langdon Warner, who in the spring of 1904 was one of the younger members of Professor Pumpelly's archaeological expedition and was among the first Christians (Russians excepted) to accomplish the journey to Khiva. Two other descriptive articles of more familiar range are "The Gates of the Hudson," by Charles M. Skinner, and "Down on the Labrador," by Gustav Kobbé. Another striking feature of the September *Century* is the series of drawings—"In the Anthracite Regions"—by Thornton Oakley.—Mr. Poultney Bigelow, whose previous writings about Panama, based on a superficial examination of conditions on the Isthmus, were severely criticised last winter, was commissioned by the *Cosmopolitan Magazine* to return to the scene of operations and procure fresh material. It is stated that on this last expedition Mr. Bigelow spent six weeks on the Isthmus, giving special attention to what he calls the "human side" of Panama. The first installment of Mr. Bigelow's impressions gained from this more extended sojourn appear in the *Cosmopolitan* for September.—In "Salam: The Story of a Hausa Slave" (in *Appleton's Magazine*), Charles Wellington Furlong describes his travels in Tripoli and his adventures with the Moors.

Sociology and Social Science.—In the *American Magazine*, Julian Willard Helburn discusses the question of intemperance, under the title: "Can We Keep Sober?"—Prof. L. H. Bailey, writing in the *Century*, notes the advance of education in the agricultural districts, and in the same magazine Dr. Robert Bennett Bean discusses "The Negro Brain."—In *Everybody's*, appears Mr. Merrill Teague's article on "Bucket-Shop Sharks," an analysis of "How the American Wage-Earner Spends His Income," by F. W. Hewes; the chapter on Australia in Charles Edward Russell's series "Soldiers of the Common Good," and a complimentary article about Springfield, Mass., as "A City of Special Schools," by Marion Melius.—Rene Bache discusses in *Pearson's* "What Easy Divorces Mean."—In the *Atlantic*, a survey of "Missionary Enterprises in China" is given by Mr. Chester Holcombe, and Mr. Hollis Godfrey discusses "City Water and City Waste."—The *World's Work* has a number of articles on sociology and social science, including Mr. Herbert L. Stone's "Why Preventable Railroad Accidents Happen" and Mr. E. C. Brooks' "Women Improving School Houses."—The *Cosmopolitan* has a unique feature, consisting of replies by schoolboys to questions submitted on the question of the nature of "graft."

Business and the Business Career.—Mr. Sherman Morse, in an article in the *American Magazine*, entitled "The Awakening of Wall Street," tells about the new methods of publicity used by the great industrial companies of capital, commonly known as "trusts."—In *Appleton's*, Mr. A. W. Rolker discusses the submarine diver and his career as an economic factor, while Mr. Chester Holcombe has a long article on "India and the Opium Trade in the Status of the Far East."—In the *Atlantic*, Mr. Jonathan Thayer Lincoln discusses machinery and labor from "A Manufacturer's Point of View."—In the *World's Work*, Mr. Isaac F. Marcossan has a suggestive paper on "Exploring for New American Crops," while Mr. Herbert N. Casson, in *Munsey's*, tells us "The Romance of Iron and Steel in America" and Mr. Burton J. Hendrick gives us, in *McClure's*, "The Story of Life Insurance."

Nature and Nature-Study.—In *Scribner's*, Ernest Thompson Seton describes "The White-tailed Virginia Deer and Its Kin," with illustrations supplied by himself.—The *Cosmopolitan* has an article by Claire Heliot, on "The Dary of a Lion Tamer."—In *Harper's*, Dr. Henry C. McCook has an exceedingly interesting article on "Hunting Wild Bees," of which he says he knows at least five thousand species. Other noteworthy articles on insects are those of Rene Bache (in the *Metropolitan*) on "Insects from Brobdignag," in which he considers the common larger insects, and a paper on "The Sense of Insects," by John J. Ward, in the *American Magazine*. In the *American Magazine*, Mr. W. N. Wright gives a veteran's account of the traits which distinguish our Western lynx and lion.—The State of Michigan, according to Mr. Allan L. Benson, in an article in *Appleton's*, is "a State going to waste."

SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

The Cost (in Electricity) of a Flash of Lightning.—Savants are so inquisitive that at times their curiosity exceeds their power of investigation. An engineer of Brussels has attempted to determine, according to a writer in the *Annales* (Paris), what it would cost man to produce lightning. As all lightning is not alike, he fixed his choice upon a medium flash. By measuring the magnetism of certain rocks formed of iron minerals, he estimated that the electric current in lightning must be of at least six hundred amperes. The intensity of the current must be considerably stronger than that, because the rocks selected for the experiment were at a great distance from the place where the lightning struck. To avoid exaggeration, the experimenter admits that the whole amount of atmospheric electricity was within the limit of 27,077 kilowatts. In Brussels the cost of an industrial kilowatt is 50 centimes (10 cents, American money). At that price, a flash of lightning would cost its producer 13,880 francs (approximately \$2,700). It must be understood that such an estimate is grossly approximate, because in any calculation so fantastic even the basis of the calculation is contestible. But any thoughtful estimate gives some idea of the expenditure of electricity in the production of atmospheric phenomena.

Could Italian Emigration Be Diverted to Italian Possessions in Africa?—The questions of Italian colonization and of emigration are always present in Italian thought, and in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) is an article by Signor Donato Sanminiatielli which treats of a slightly different phase. Commenting on an address given before the Colonial Institute, he treats rather discouragingly the two usually accepted possibilities for turning the great numbers of outgoing Italians to the benefit of Italy and to the propagation of the Italian character away from Italy. First, the hope that Italian immigrants to the United States, or to South America may ever be a source of strength to Italy he puts quite on one side. Their fate is inevitably to be assimilated to the nationality when they settle. This is scarcely less true of South America, so he says, than of the United States. Italians in Brazil, in the Argentine Republic, prosper and come to love their adopted country, and their sons are completely weaned

from any affection for Italy—indeed, the new-rich are often ashamed of their father's nationality. He discusses at more length the second cherished hope of the Italian Government that the Italian possessions in Africa, so hardly won with so much blood and money, may be ultimately prosperous agricultural regions filled with Italian emigrant farmers; but his decision is not less against this dream. He points out that the really possible regions, when climate and soil are not too unlike those of Italy for successful colonization, are in reality very limited in area, and would support at the most a few thousand inhabitants. More than this, he believes that the presence of a native population of negroes would inevitably lead to the formation of a mixed race of mulattoes, his argument being that the Anglo-Saxons are the only people capable of living among an inferior race without intermarriage. The ancient Italian conquerors of Gaul amalgamated with the native population, and the Spanish conquerors of Mexico and South America have left behind them a people of half-breeds. Is it worth the effort, he asks, to establish colonies in Eritrea for the purpose of owning later a collection of mulattoes? At the end of this somewhat dispiriting essay the author has a suggestion of his own to make which is of interest in connection with the late conference of Algeciras. He points out Tripoli as the natural location for the overflow of Italian population. The climate is healthful, although hot and dry; the native population is very scanty and composed of nomad Arabs; the crops could be about those of Sicily. As to the method of acquiring this region the author disclaims any idea of violent methods and asks, "Is not pacific economic expansion possible?"

Piercing Steel by Electricity.—The *Zeitschrift des Vereins Deutscher Ingenieren* gives an interesting account of the perforation of armor plate by the combined action of the electric current and oxygen. One of the fields (or poles) of a battery of generators of fifty amperes was attached to the plate, and the other field was attached to a copper tubing by means of a commutator. One end of a piece of flexible tubing capable of resisting a pressure of thirty atmospheres was attached to a receptacle filled with oxygen, and the other end was attached to a cop-

per tubing, which continued it and consequently formed a circuit. A shut-off, or faucet, similar to the controller of a motor, regulated the flow of the current of oxygen. An arc was formed by advancing the plate to the end of the tubing and then moving it backward a little. The arc heated the metal to the required temperature, and at the same time fired the current of oxygen. In a short time the metal began to burn and to run, leaving a hole wherever the action of the oxygen had been felt.

The Commercial Opportunities That Denmark Is Losing.—A Danish political economist, Dr. J. Ostrup, contributes to the *Dansk Tidsskrift* (Copenhagen) a stirring appeal to his countrymen as to their commercial opportunities. Denmark, he says, should arouse herself from her contented self-effacement as a humble little state with scarcely any foreign politics at all, to take advantage of the special opportunities afforded such small countries as herself of "doing good business" abroad. Her very smallness protects her from the envy and aggressiveness of the great powers. What a Frenchman would grudge a German and the German in turn the Englishman they would joyfully permit to a Dutchman, a Portuguese, or a Dane, and in the near future Denmark will find ample opportunities in the East of increasing her activities and of making a name for herself without rousing political suspicion and jealousy. But this sort of thing should not be left to private enterprise. It should be the duty of the government to open up fields of commerce and labor for the Danes in such countries as would not, after a generation or two, completely absorb the emigrant, robbing the homeland of him and his sons forever, as is the case in America, whence, having once made a hearth for himself there, he rarely returns. The emigrant to East Asia, to Siam, to the Levant, would always turn back to the homeland, placing at its disposal such mercantile experience and, haply, also such capital as he had acquired abroad. Now, however, it is to private initiative that Denmark owes such foreign trade and industries as she has. It is to the enterprise of a private individual at the founding of the great northern telegraphic company in East Asia that she owes the market for her wares she has there; in spite of which she has left herself without any representative in Peking, and on the whole Chinese coast possesses but one solitary consul sent out from the home country. Dr. Ostrup, therefore, insists first of all upon a reorganization and increase of the Danish consular service, which is absurdly inadequate, and a weeding out of such men as have no other interest in their post than that which lies in the title and uniform.

Facts About the French Academy.—Emile Gassier, the well-known French author, has just published a book giving a complete history of the French Academy, from the year 1634 to the present time, an interesting review and digest of which appears in the *Annales* (Paris). Since the creation of the Academy, this article informs us, forty-eight priests of the Church of Rome have been members of it. Of those forty-eight, fourteen were cardinals, nine were archbishops, and twenty-five were bishops. Three members of the Academy belonged to the reigning family of France (the Count de Clermont, Lucien Bonaparte, and

the Duke d'Aumale). Another member, M. Thiers, was president of the republic. Fifteen members were prime ministers, forty-nine ministers, thirty-six ambassadors, twenty-five dukes and peers, six *grandses* of Spain, and thirty-nine "chevaliers" (either of the Order of the King, the Order of St. Esprit, or the Order of St. Louis). Thirty members of the Academy wore the grand Cross of the Legion of Honor. Twenty-four of the members were admitted to the Academy before they reached their thirtieth year. Twenty-three were septuagenarians when they were admitted. Twenty-two sat but three years, although they were academicians at least forty-four years. Fifteen died before they reached their forty-fifth year. Eighteen were nonagenarians when they died, and two of these last were very nearly one hundred years old. The academician has a fixed salary of 1,500 francs (approximately \$300) per annum. The members of the Dictionary Commission are paid an annual personal "indemnity" of 1,200 francs (approximately \$240).

The Energetic Italian Attack on Malaria.—The *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) prints a brief account of the work of the Anti-malarial League which presents a picture of energy in combating a public evil worthy of imitation. In the Anti-malaria League are organized societies which correspond to our granges among the farmers, groups of villagers, alliances among country doctors, representatives from every class and occupation—this, of course, particularly in the south of Italy, where the evil is so terrible. Angelo Celli, writing on the subject, says: "In the war against malaria there is glory for the private soldier as well as for the general; the country doctor and the small farmer are in the front rank of honor." The latest move in the battle is the publishing by the society for the study of malaria of a sort of decalogue for peasants in the treatment and prevention of the disease. This is to be widely distributed throughout the dangerous regions. Its provisions show to American readers how well supported by the government is the movement. Briefly summarized, the ten commandments are: 1. The only remedy against malaria is quinine, and then again always only quinine. 2. The quinine prepared by the government is best because it is pure, put up in convenient doses, and will keep its efficacy longest. 3. It is to be remembered constantly that it is easier to prevent than to cure malaria. 4. In malarial regions each adult should take two government quinine pills a day from June to November. After the first three or four days of these preventive doses of quinine the roaring in the ears will stop. 5. If, in spite of these regular doses of quinine, the fever should come, six government pills a day should be taken for a week. For babies one to three is enough. 6. If the fever is very bad it may be broken by ten pills a day for adults, six for children and four for infants. 7. A list is given of occupations, the workers in which have a right to free quinine furnished by the government. 8. If a peasant removes from a malarial to a non-malarial district he is entitled to enough free quinine for the journey and for seven days thereafter. 9. Contractors on public or private enterprises who do not furnish quinine to their laborers are liable to a fine of a thousand lire, and in case of death from malaria, where no quinine was furnished,

they shall pay an indemnity as though the laborer had met his death in an accident on the work. 10. Besides laborers, all the poor are entitled to quinine from their commune.

Superiority of the German Civil Code.—

Writing in the *Independent Review*, Mr. F. W. Maitland tells the story of the making of the German Civil Code. He traces the stages from 1874, when a commission of eleven lawyers was appointed who spent thirteen years over their work. A second commission was appointed in 1888, containing representatives not merely of law, but of commerce, industry, and agriculture. On this was based the third project, laid in 1896 by the Federal Council before the Reichstag. Mr. Maitland is moved with admiration of the parliamentary virtue which in six months passed a code of 2,385 sections. It came into force in 1900. "Never, I should think, has so much first-rate brain power been put into an act of legislation; and never, I should think, has a nation so thoroughly said its say about its system of law. Yet there was less talk in the Reichstag over a Civil Code of 2,385 sections than there will be talk in Parliament over this education bill." Even French lawyers admit the superiority of the German to the French Code, and Japan has largely followed, and borrowed from the German Code. The writer observes sardonically that some time or other we may be able to borrow the Japanese Code—rational, coherent, modern—to replace our legal chaos.

Winston Churchill and His Famous Father.

—An anonymous writer in the *Edinburgh Review*, discussing Mr. Winston Churchill and his future in British politics, says: "Whatever judgment men may pass on the career of Lord Randolph Churchill, no one can dispute the great literary talent shown by his son in the brilliant biography he has given to the public. Courage, originality, brilliant wit, united with infinite painstaking, never fail to win the ear of the British people, and this alone suffices to some extent to make a man a power in the land. In these respects the son has trodden in his father's footsteps; and if in addition to the great gifts which he has inherited Mr. Winston Churchill proves that he possesses certain qualities in which Lord Randolph was lacking,—the capacity to work and cooperate with other men even when they are not his subordinates, and the power of inspiring the public with confidence in his character as well as with admiration for his cleverness and courage,—it is not easy to set limits to the height to which that son's abilities may yet raise him. A man of moods, without fixed principles, cannot be expected to give steady guidance to the state. To excel in the party game will not suffice. Lord Randolph Churchill was greatly gifted, but it was not possible for him to play the part, or leave behind him the reputation, of a great statesman."

Wanted: A Real God!—In the *Hibbert Journal*, which has become essential to all who wish to keep posted on the latest developments of religious thought, Sir Oliver Lodge makes an audacious attempt to formulate a new Christian creed, and Professor Smith a still more audacious suggestion that Japan should construct a new world religion out of the Christian and Buddhist religions. Very radical is Mr. Garnett's protest against any affir-

mation of belief. He says: "Under the sanction of the Church, belief is treated as something that can be expressed in a given form of words, at stated moments, or as a verbal assent to certain truths. In opposition to this, I hold that the belief demanded by Christ cannot possibly be affirmed in words. Man's whole life is the only true expression of his belief. The Church cannot, without the gravest risk, permit her members to make an unqualified affirmation of belief in God." Another article full of serious earnest thought is Dr. Forsyth's paper urging that the doctrine of grace may serve as a rallying point of the Free Churches. At present, he says, "the whole economy of atoning grace, while not denied, is only kept as in some houses you find the old spinning-wheel kept, in the warm drawing-room. It is not a more ideal God we need, but a more real God, actual in and over life. We want a God real, not only to our thought, our piety, our devotion, but to our life's action, private and social, industrial and national. Our first want is not a real religion, but a real God as the practical moral power in life and society, whom to know is the solution of life and the consummation of the race. We do possess sincerity in our faith; it is reality we need."

Six Months of Liberal Government in Eng-

land.—Mr. J. A. Spender, surveying (in the *Contemporary Review*) the first six months' work of the new parliament, pronounces it to be very good. He says: "Whatever other crimes may be imputed to them by political opponents, no one can suggest that the government has failed in industry. A mass of work, much of it unsensational, but most of it requiring industry, research, and practical good sense, has been undertaken by ministers in their various departments or by committees and commissions, and will bear fruit in the statute book before the end of the year. The Liberal party in this parliament has proved itself to be as practical and able as those who knew the quality of the candidates expected it to be, and very seldom since the first reform bill has a parliament assembled which rose to a higher level in debating ability or administrative capacity."

The Problem of Old Age.—Doctor Metchnikov's book on "Natural Lack of Harmony and the Problem of Death" is attracting a good deal of attention in Italian magazines. The *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) gives a very interesting review of it and brief summary of the contents. The first part is concerned with the problem of disease and with the imperfections of the human body. Doctor Metchnikov claims that the old reverent idea of the theologians that the human body is a wonderfully perfect adaptation of means to end is unfounded; that in reality the human body is most imperfect and bears every sign of being in a state of incomplete evolution. Hair is no longer needed, wisdom teeth are but occasions for discomfort, and the appendix and the colon sources of positive danger, the one for its liability to inflammation and the other for the mass of refuse matter liable to putrefaction which it keeps in the body. On the other hand, the author, for all his pessimistic views, is very enthusiastic about the possibilities of the science of medicine. He points out the immense strides made in the treatment of wounds during only the nineteenth century, and gives some interesting statistics to prove his point.

The English troops in the Crimean War lost 15 per cent. through unsanitary care of wounds; the French troops in Italy in 1859 lost 17 per cent.; the German army in 1870 lost 11 per cent.; the Americans in the Spanish-American war, 6 per cent.; and every one knows what a marvellous success the Japanese had with their modern surgeon's staff. The war against diphtheria and typhoid fever has resulted in a victory almost complete; smallpox is robbed of its terrors; yellow fever is almost a thing of the past, and the battle against tuberculosis is more and more successful. With all these trophies behind it, Dr. Metchnikov predicts that medicine will shortly turn its attention to the problems of old age, and that success then—almost certain after a time—will mean a notable change in that period of life, and a lengthening of human life by a quarter, perhaps by a third, of its present duration. More than this, it will mean that old age will be as agreeable and painless a period as youth. Sickness and disease are no more natural than in middle life. Old age should be the natural descent of the parabola of human life, and should be accompanied by a feeling of longing for repose which makes death desired ultimately. In other words, it should be physiological and psychological rather than pathological. Potentially, man contains the germs of as great a natural longing for death and contentment with repose as he now has of desire for life and need for activity; and the learned author thinks that it is only a question of time until the perfected science of medicine will have developed this instinct, now latent only because of the struggle against disease which is almost always the ending of life.

A Plea for the Oyster as a Cure for Typhoid.

—From Italy comes an enthusiastic disclaimer of the bad favor into which the oyster has recently fallen. In its "Biological Notes," the *Rivista d'Italia* (Rome) prints a long and elaborate scientific refutation of the crimes laid at the door of oyster-eating. Along with this defense goes the destruction of many of our pet superstitions about the oyster. The belief, as prevalent in France and Italy as with us, that oysters are not fit to be eaten during those months without an "r" in their names is declared to be entirely without foundation. During the exposition of 1900 at Paris, quantities of oysters were consumed during the months of June, July, and August without any bad effects. Further than this, the oyster is claimed to have much more nourishment in it than is generally thought, and owing to the great ease of digestion is a valuable food, the use of which it is a pity to lose through unfounded prejudice. A long series of laboratory experiments seem to show pretty conclusively that the few diseases to which the oyster is subject do not affect the human organism. There remains the possibility of the mollusk carrying the germs of typhoid in the water which surrounds it, and which, though harmless to its own life, are fatal to humanity. A recently completed series of experiments conducted by Professor Klein in the Metropolitan laboratory in London shows a new and surprising discovery,—namely, that the oyster, unlike all warm-blooded animals, exerts a positively bactericidal and antiseptic action on the ty-

phoid germ; and Professor Klein adds that if his experiments continue to show the same results "it will very probably come to pass that the oyster will be regarded as the best preventive and cure for typhoid fever." Truly an astounding volte-face for science!

The Tomato as a Medicine.—In the *Correspondant* (Paris) is an article on this subject. The doctors who have made war upon the tomato, says the writer, are now recognizing their error. Hitherto, gouty, arthritic, and rheumatic subjects were forbidden to eat tomatoes, because as yet there is nothing in the vegetable world containing a greater proportion of oxalates. No one has been permitted to eat tomatoes while taking any form of lithia, and prejudices have been so strong that they will continue to be cherished by every one who does not follow the medical movement closely. But advanced thinkers in medicine now concede that the tomato ought to be eaten freely whenever it can be digested. Armand Gautier, of the Academy of Sciences of France, professor of chemistry of the medical faculty of Paris, recently determined the composition of the tomato by chemical analysis. He found that the vegetable has but slight traces of oxalic acid, while it contains a quantity of citrates and malate (salts) which recommend it to the use of arthritic patients and patients suffering from kidney trouble. For that reason, doctors ought to prescribe it. Dr. Moret, of Courlon, writes to the *Journal of Medicine*: "If I order my patients to eat tomatoes, I have reason for doing so. I am a complete arthritic, the son of a diabetic and lithiastic. I am lithiastic, and have been since I was twenty-five years old. (I am forty years old at the present time.) Four years ago I began to eat tomatoes. I had read several articles defending the tomato, and I craved it. So I began to eat it,—at first timidly, then freely, then greedily. I have eaten tomatoes at every meal. In summer I eat them raw; in winter stewed. Since I began to eat them my colic has disappeared. My idea is that the war against the tomato originated in a fancy of chemists. Doctors forbade their patients to use the tomato because of its acidity, and because they prescribed it, arthritics and diabetics took fright. As a matter of fact, citrates and malates are very useful in lithiasis.

Honey Made By the Bees of Europe.—The latest statistics gathered by *Illustration* (Paris) give the following figures in honey. The bees of the countries named, in hives numbered as below, shared the honor due to the achievers of such important results. For Germany, the figures are 1,910,000 hives and 20,000 tuns of honey; for Spain, 1,690,000 hives and 19,000 tuns of honey; for Austria-Hungary, 1,550,000 hives and 18,000 tuns; for France, 950,000 hives and 10,000 tuns; for Holland, 240,000 hives and 2,500 tuns; for Belgium, 200,000 hives and 2,000 tuns; for Greece, 30,000 hives and 1,400 tuns; for Russia, 110,000 hives and 900 tuns; and for Denmark, 90,000 hives and 900 tuns of honey. About 6,000 tuns were furnished by Italy, Switzerland, and other countries where apiculture is developed. A tun is a large cask, for liquids, of varying size, but generally holding about 250 gallons.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION.

IN "Picturesque Brittany" (London: Dent; imported by Dutton), Mrs. Arthur H. Bell has given us some seductive descriptions of that beautiful, artistic country, while Mr. Arthur G. Bell has supplied illustrations in color, giving excellent and accurate impressions of the sleepy old fascinating *Pays des Pardons*. The Bretons are beyond a doubt the most primitive and secluded of French peoples and this writer and artist predict that it will be a long time before their seclusion is broken in upon. The description of the town of Quimper is particularly interesting. The author of this little volume found that it was difficult to make one's self understood in French in this old Breton town.

A remarkable description of "The Idyllic Avon" (Putnam's) is given, with many illustrations, by John Henry Garrett. The volume is the leisurely record of an easy-going pilgrimage from Tewkesbury to above the famous Stratford.

The late John William Walshe, F.S.A., was known to scholars as one of the greatest authorities on the literature of monasticism, particularly Franciscan. His work "The History of St. Francis of Assisi" is now well known. Coincident with the discovery of his papers and unpublished manuscripts appears his biography, edited with an introduction (Dutton) by Montgomery Carmichael.

A series of the best-known stories, legends, and traditions connected with the famous San Antonio Valley, in Texas, from the days of the Spanish Conquest down to the present, have been collected by Miss Clara Driscoll, under the general title "In the Shadow of the Alamo" (Putnam's). The book is well printed, and is illustrated with marginal pictures representing scenes of old Texas.

Although Mme. Emilia Pardo Bazán, the Spanish realist, is one of the greatest women novelists of our age, she is but little known among English-speaking peoples. It is, therefore, a real service to literature which is done by Annabel Hord Seeger (and the publishers, Funk & Wagnalls) in bringing out an English translation of "The Mystery of the Lost Dauphin," under which title this George Eliot of Spain has told the wonderfully dramatic life-story of Louis XVII. of France. The volume is furnished with a biographical note about Señora Bazán, and there is also a descriptive historical introduction by the translator.

The Duttons have imported Ethel Wedgwood's new English version of "The Memoirs of the Lord of Joinville." This quaint old chronicle, written six hundred years ago, records the life and adventures of King Louis of France, known as the "Saint," with particular reference to the seventh crusade in Egypt. The volume is illustrated with reproductions from old paintings, prints, and tapestries.

Mr. Richard Arthur's "Ten Thousand Miles in a Yacht" (Dutton), which took him through the West Indies and up the Amazon River, makes very interesting reading supplementary to our Brazil-

ian articles in last month's REVIEW. Mr. Arthur has a knack of telling his experiences pleasantly, and has taken some interesting and suggestive photographs, which are used to illustrate the volume. There is an introduction by William M. Ivins.

The recollections of the New England missionary's family in the first half of the nineteenth century are embodied in a volume by Dr. Henry M. Lyman, entitled "Hawaiian Yesterdays" (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). These reminiscences throw not a little light on religious, educational, and political conditions during the troublous period of Hawaiian history.

In a book which he calls "The Glory Seekers," Mr. William Horace Brown assembles a mixed collection of fact and legend concerning the pioneers of the great Southwest,—Wilkinson, Burr, Phillip Nolan, Colonel Perry, and a number of lesser frontier lights, including several Spanish-American adventurers of the border.

In the "Heroes of the Nations" series (Putnam's), a life of George Washington is contributed by Prof. James A. Harrison, of the University of Virginia. Brief and necessarily condensed as such a work must be, Professor Harrison has succeeded remarkably well in presenting an eminently readable biography. This, we believe, is the first of the modern lives of Washington to be written by a native Southerner,—one to the manner born, who appreciates as no one else can the distinctive features of life in the Old Dominion in Washington's time.

The third and final volume of the encyclopedic work entitled "Christian Missions and Social Progress," by the Rev. James S. Dennis, D.D. (Revell), has just appeared. In notices of the preceding volumes, the general character of this sociological study of foreign missions has been outlined for REVIEW of REVIEWS readers. In the twelve years during which Dr. Dennis has been engaged upon this great task, he has accumulated a vast store of interesting facts, most of which had never before been classified or grouped in systematic order. The present volume is a continuation of the discussion begun in the preceding volume on "The Contribution of Christian Missions to Social Progress." The work is supplied with a copious index.

The "Grafton Historical Series" (New York: The Grafton Press) opens with a series of entertaining sketches by Charles Burr Todd entitled "In Olde Connecticut." There is abundance of quaint local history and romance, as well as the fabric of more serious records, in this interesting little volume. Especially noteworthy are the chapters on "Whaleboat Privateersmen of the Revolution;" "New London, an Old-time Seaport;" "A Revolutionary Newgate," and "The Probate Judge and the Town Clerk."

The ancestral homes of thousands of American families are associated directly or indirectly with the Connecticut Valley. The history of that valley, indeed, is made up of the family records of

Americans whose present habitations are now far distant from the old roof trees. The annual observance of "Old Home Week" in that part of New England serves to keep alive the memories of earlier days, and this year the publication of Edwin M. Bacon's generously illustrated volume on "The Connecticut River and the Valley of the Connecticut" (Putnam's) will undoubtedly stimulate and foster a new interest in the region. In all Colonial America no group of settlements had a more picturesque history than did those Connecticut River villages, which had passed through a veritable baptism of fire in the Indian wars of a century before the Revolution.

ON SOCIOLOGY AND ECONOMICS.

The current volume of the year-book entitled "Social Progress," of which Dr. Josiah Strong is the editor-in-chief (New York: Baker & Taylor Company), gives important statistics bearing on the growth of socialism in the United States and throughout the world. There is also a particularly interesting analysis of religious statistics, showing that the tide of church membership, which has been gaining on the population for a century past, has now begun to ebb. These are only two of the distinctively timely features that we note in this annual survey of economic, industrial, social, and religious development. The book is full of fresh statistical data of the highest importance.

A posthumous work on religion, by Henry Demarest Lloyd, has been published under the title "Man, the Social Creator" (Doubleday, Page & Co.). It is stated that the material included in this work had been largely gathered by Mr. Lloyd during the ten years preceding his death in 1903. During this same period Mr. Lloyd had investigated various governmental and cooperative experiments, and the results of these investigations had appeared in his books entitled "Labor Copartnership," "A Country Without Strikes," and "Newest England." It is evident that these studies by Mr. Lloyd tended to confirm his own views of religion, which could not be dissociated from his social philosophy.

The latest text-book of economics for high schools is the little volume entitled "The Principles of Wealth and Welfare," by Charles P. Raper, professor of economics in the University of North Carolina (Macmillan). In this book the author attempts no more than a simple and elementary discussion of the more important principles involved in the production and consumption of wealth, wealth being considered merely as a means to an end,—a means to human welfare in all of its manifold aspects. The last section of the book, dealing with the distribution of wealth, treats in a novel and suggestive way of such topics as the pay and profits of business management, the profits of monopoly, and legislation and monopoly management.

"A Practical Programme for Working Men," which has been brought out anonymously by Swan Sonnenschein and imported by the Scribners, considers as the two important questions before the modern workingman (1) Is public ownership wise to-day? and (2) To what will public ownership lead to-morrow? This work is divided into three "books."—(1) the book of exhortation, (2) the book of facts, and (3) the book of wisdom, faith, and love.

A convenient account of the British system of taxation and the principles on which it is based, together with some of the leading historical facts in its evolution, is contained in a little volume by G. Armitage-Smith, principal of the Birkbeck College (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). Minute discussions on controverted points are ruled out by space limitations, and only broad principles and general tendencies are stated. American students of the subject of taxation will find many interesting suggestions in this little treatise.

A scientific study of "Railroad Rate Control in Its Legal Aspects" is contributed to the publications of the American Economic Association by Dr. Harrison Standish Smalley, instructor in political economy at the University of Michigan. This work consists of an introductory chapter on the public regulation of rates, three chapters on the doctrine of judicial review, two on the results of the doctrine, and a concluding chapter specifying certain remedies. Under this head the writer suggests a plan for compensation to the railroad for property taken.

"The Battles of Labor" is the title given to a little volume of lectures delivered by Dr. Carroll D. Wright on the William Levi Bull foundation at the Philadelphia Divinity School. The book is about equally apportioned between medieval and modern labor battles. Dr. Wright's account of some of the great strikes of recent history is particularly interesting, in view of the fact that for many years he held a government position at Washington, which brought him into close touch with labor leaders throughout the United States.

The editor of the *Irrigation Age*, Mr. D. H. Anderson, is the author of a little manual, entitled "The Primer of Irrigation" (Chicago: The D. H. Anderson Publishing Company). This work is what the title indicates and deals with the subject in an elementary way, beginning with a discussion of soil in general, its formation, characteristics and uses, and proceeding to an account of particular soils and their adaptations to varieties of plants, and thence to a particular description of the semi-arid and arid lands of the Far West and Southwest. There are many practical suggestions to the farmers of irrigated lands, relating not only to the methods of irrigation, but to the culture of grains and plants which depend upon irrigation for their sustenance.

SCIENCE AND PHILOSOPHY.

In his exhaustive treatise entitled "The Economy of Happiness" (Little, Brown), Mr. James MacKaye has attempted to give us "an analysis of common sense." "It is easy," says the author, "to destroy the dogmas of commercialism, but not easy to construct a practical substitute therefor." Difficult as this is, Mr. MacKaye essays the task. The scope of his work may be inferred from the introductory chapter, which states the "problem of happiness" and the "scope of common sense."

Professor Simon Newcomb's latest work on the heavenly bodies is entitled "A Compendium of Spherical Astronomy" (Macmillan). This is the first of a projected series on practical and theoretical astronomy. The volume has special reference to the determination and reduction of the positions of fixed stars.

Rev. J. Cosand, who believes that "there are many contradictions in the Newtonian theory of the universe," has written a little book setting forth his "New Theory of the Universe," which

has been published for the author by the Methodist Publishing House, in Tokio, Japan.

A year or so ago Dr. Paul Dubois, professor in the University of Berne and author of a now famous work on "The Psychic Treatment of Nervous Diseases," wrote a work on "The Influence of the Mind on the Body." This has now been translated from the fifth French edition, by L. B. Gallatin, and published by Funk & Wagnalls Company.

In his scholarly work, "The Analysis of Racial Descent in Animals" (Holt), Dr. Thomas H. Montgomery, who occupies the chair of zoölogy in the University of Texas, has attempted, he declares, to write a prologue to an important phase of modern biological thought. His argument is from the side of zoölogy, and his generalizations are based on the results of the latest painstaking experiments in laboratories and the field.

Mr. Charles Hallock, of the Washington Biological Society, has attempted to explain "the interrelation of the intellectual, celestial, and terrestrial kingdoms, and of man to his Maker" in a small volume which he has called "Luminous Bodies Here and Hereafter," which has been published by the Metaphysical Publishing Company, New York.

The author of the little volume "The Secret Life, Being the Book of a Heretic" (John Lane), is too modest. The excellent style, quaint humor, and shrewd philosophy certainly deserve to have their author known. All sorts of topics are treated in the form of entries in an imaginary diary.

The famous "Guide for the Perplexed," the great work of the old Jewish philosopher Moses Maimonides, has been retranslated, with revision and notes from the original Arabic text by Dr. M. Friedlander. This edition combines in one volume the three volumes of the original edition. Most of the Hebrew words and phrases have been either eliminated or transliterated. The work is published in London by Routledge and imported by the Duttons.

Mr. E. Kay Robinson, who has been well known for years as a writer on nature subjects and who has made a deep impression in England by his philosophical essays, attempts, in his little book "The Religion of Nature" (McClure, Phillips) to prove that there is no conflict between science and religion, and that the cruelty which we seem to discern in nature is an illusion, man and man alone being conscious of pain and suffering. He calls his work in general "The Challenge of a Free Thinker," and sums it up by saying that the future of the human soul itself as taught by religion is only the creation of natural evolution.

NEW BOOKS ON POLITICS AND LAW.

The University of Pennsylvania has brought out, as number eighteen of its series on political, economic, and public law, Mr. Chester Lloyd Jones' "The Consular Service of the United States, Its History and Activities." This is a rather more ambitious and comprehensive history of our "trade ambassadors" abroad than has been published before. A study of the systems in use in the chief European commercial nations is also included.

In eight large volumes the State Department has brought out its "Digest of International Law," compiled by Prof. John Bassett Moore. In preparing this work, which took years of application,

Professor Moore, whose accomplishments and qualifications have so often been stated in these pages, analyzed, digested, and epitomized diplomatic discussions, treaties, and other international agreements, international awards, the decisions of municipal courts, the writings of jurists, the documents—published and unpublished—of Presidents and Secretaries of State of the United States, the opinions of Attorneys-General, and the decisions of State and federal courts. Copious notes and other references complete this monumental work.

Mr. W. Frank Hatheway, of St. John, N. B., Canada, offers a little volume of essays, two of which are entitled "Canadian Nationality" and "The Cry of Labor," respectively (Toronto: Williams Briggs). This writer has an abiding faith in Canada's national destiny, and urges his readers to disregard hereafter, so far as possible, the names of Canadian provinces and to learn to think of the whole country as one. By sounding the note of patriotism, which he defines as "an appreciation of our natural surroundings and a reverence for our citizenship," Mr. Hatheway hopes to make Canadians feel their responsibilities as citizens of the Dominion.

SCHOOL BOOKS AND WORKS OF REFERENCE.

"The School and Its Life" is the title given to a brief discussion of some of the vital problems of school administration by Charles B. Gilbert, who has had much experience as superintendent of city school systems (New York: Silver, Burdett & Co.). The general aim of the book is to show how school life is related to life in its totality and how children taught in school should be placed in the midst of a "a natural, sane, and wholesome life, free from all false, ephemeral, and artificial standards and stimuli."

Fifteen essays which won prizes in a contest initiated by publishers in 1905 are now brought out under the title of "Successful Teaching" (Funk & Wagnalls Company). All of these essays are on educational topics and were written by practical teachers. Superintendent James M. Greenwood, of Kansas City, contributes an introduction to the volume.

Mr. Claude Ellsworth Johnson, organist and choirmaster of the Church of the Holy Cross, New York, has prepared a little manual on "The Training of Boys' Voices," which has been published by Oliver Ditson. A number of scores and exercises are furnished, and a list is given of the most adaptable sacred and secular music written especially for or adapted to the uses of boys' choirs in schools.

The first volume of "Nelson's Encyclopedia," a work to be completed in twelve volumes under the editorship of Frank Moore Colby, of New York, and George Sandeman, of Edinburgh, has recently come from the press (New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons). This is perhaps the most ambitious attempt yet made in this country to produce a low-priced encyclopedia of first-class literary quality. The first volume, covering the entire letter "A," and "B" as far as "Bedl," consists of 650 pages of three columns each, printed from clear-faced type. The four desiderata that the publishers have endeavored to insure in this work are accuracy, completeness, clearness, and guidance for students. To each important article is appended a select bibliography, as a guide to the best sources of information for further study.